

MOTHER TONGUE


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*Journal of the Association for the Study of
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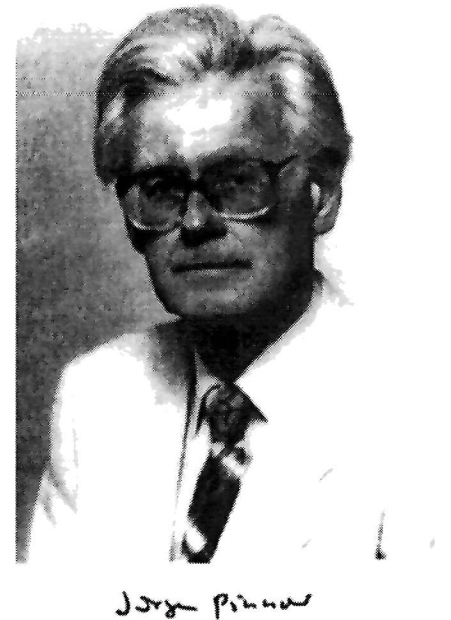
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Heinz-Jürgen Pinnow (1925–2016)

About a quarter-century ago the antecedent of this periodical, for unclear reasons, mistakenly announced the demise of our colleague Heinz-Jürgen Pinnow.¹ Notwithstanding our Mark Twainish blunder, this superb scholar managed to survive until his eventual passing on the first day of July, 2016, on the Frisian isle of Sylt.²

Pinnow is known to historical linguists mainly for two major language families in which he worked: (a) Austro-Asiatic (or Austroasiatic, part of Austric), and (b) Na-Dene (part of Dene-Caucasian). As to (a), Pinnow made a vast contribution to Austroasiatic studies in his 1959 book *Versuch einer historischen Lautlehre der Kharia-Sprache* [*An attempt at a historical phonology of the Kharia language*]. The title beginning with *Versuch* (attempt, or experiment) was typical for Pinnow's humble, unassuming scholarly style. In the opinion of a prominent researcher on Munda:



Despite its modest title, and its emphasis on Kharia and the Munda languages, [this book is] the most ambitious comparative study of the Austroasiatic languages as a whole, drawing on virtually every Austroasiatic source known in the fifties to establish proto-Munda and proto-Austroasiatic phonology and lexicon. ... [In spite of some erroneous and misleading data available at the time], his reconstructions seem in the main to stand up.” David Stampe, *Munda Bibliography to 1983*.³

As we see in general in regard to Pinnow's trailblazing work, his important contributions tended to be overlooked or belittled by non-German-speaking scholars, whether in Austroasiatic or Na-Dene studies.

When Edward Sapir first proposed the Na-Dene family of languages in 1915, it was thought to consist of three linguistic units: (a) the Haida language, (b) the Tlingit language, and (c) the Athabaskan family (Tanana, Carrier, Sarsi, Mattole, Hupa, Navajo, etc.).⁴ At that time the Eyak language was little known, but it eventually became clear that it belonged to Na-Dene and was close to Athabaskan. The following structure of the Na-Dene family eventually became more or less generally accepted: it was thought that Haida was the most divergent of the languages, and thus had split off first from the rest of the family. Then Tlingit split off, then Eyak, leaving the core Athabaskan family.

1. *Mother Tongue* (Newsletter of the Association for the Study of Language in Prehistory), issue 17, August 1992, page 44. Regrettably, in this erroneous notice his name was also misreported as “Hans-Jürgen Pinnow.”

2. We are obliged to Jan Henrik Holst for forwarding to the editor the tribute he wrote for *AmerIndian Research* (see references).

3. <http://www.ling.hawaii.edu/austroasiatic/AA/Munda/BIBLIO/biblio.authors>

4. As Pinnow (2006: 60-61) pointed out, several scholars, such as Wrangell, Radloff, and Boas had inklings of some kind of relationship between Haida and/or Tlingit and/or Athabaskan, but since Sapir “was the first to apply the scientific method, he rightly deserves to be called the discoverer of this language family.”

Even from the beginning some experts were unwilling to accept the Na-Dene family. For example, Pliny Earle Goddard could not even accept the relatedness of Tlingit and Athabaskan (let alone Haida), and published an article highlighting the differences between the languages. Later Robert Levine published an article purporting to demolish Sapir's evidence for connecting Haida to the rest of Na-Dene. Many experts, such as Michael Krauss, concurred with Levine, excluding Haida from Na-Dene, while eventually accepting the original unity of Tlingit-Eyak-Athabaskan.

Meanwhile, Pinnow, beginning in the 1960s, continued to amass evidence for a Na-Dene family that still included Haida, correcting and adding to Sapir's evidence. Already in the 1950s Dell Hymes had demonstrated "that the positional categories of the verb in Haida, Tlingit, and Athabaskan correlate in a way that can neither be the result of chance nor be the result of borrowing" (Pinnow 2006: 61). As part of his book *Language in the Americas* Greenberg critically examined Levine's methods and conclusions, maintaining that many of Levine's criticisms were invalid, and even if the criticism were accepted, much of Sapir's evidence remained intact. Greenberg's contentions closely coincided with Pinnow's in his 2006 book. Alexis Manaster Ramer, while disagreeing somewhat with some of Greenberg's arguments, also found fault with Levine's claims. Even more recently John Enrico, an expert in the Haida language, has adduced powerful evidence of the validity of Sapir's original Na-Dene hypothesis. Nevertheless, it seems that most of the current North American Na-Dene/Athabaskan establishment continues to deny the membership of Haida.

Seven years after the regrettable false report of Pinnow's death in ASLIP's newsletter, *Mother Tongue* (journal) attempted to make amends for the mistake by publishing a tribute to Pinnow (Bengtson 1999).

Pinnow is a Long Ranger. That is, he allows himself to think and hypothesize about distant relationships between the traditionally accepted language families. He thinks there is evidence for remote relationships between Na-Dene and certain other language families. However, his ideas (as expressed in Pinnow 1976 and 1990) do not precisely coincide with the Dene-Caucasian hypothesis ..., but are more similar to those of Morris Swadesh['s] ... vast linguistic network that connects all the languages of the world. ... Pinnow's arguments are backed up by volumes of evidence, where, for example, every recorded word and sentence in the Haida language is painstakingly documented, analyzed, and compared with Tlingit, Eyak, and Athabaskan.

In recent years Pinnow turned to other, "short range," linguistic studies of minority languages: his childhood Low German dialect of Danzig, the Frisian dialects of Germany, and the Kashubian of Poland. Finally, this quote from the recent homage by Jan Henrik Holst deserves repeating:

Pinnow is an undervalued researcher. This is also related to his modest, restrained nature. He called several of his works merely "experiments" [*Versuch*], although they contain well-founded, extensive reflections and research, and much of science can be subject to falsification anyway. He never wanted to impose his opinions and findings on others; he always looked for lack of recognition in himself and worked even harder to prove his views. (Translation from Holst 2017: 114.)

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5. VA = Völkerkundliche Arbeitsgemeinschaft.

Vyacheslav Vsevolodovich Ivanov (1929–2017)

V.V. Ivanov graduated from Moscow State University as a philologist in 1951. He continued there as a faculty member and earned his first doctoral degree. In 1958 he was dismissed from the University on political grounds (support of writer Boris Pasternak and linguist Roman Jakobson). After that Ivanov worked with the eminent Vladimir Toporov at the Institute of Slavic and Balkan Studies of the Academy of Sciences. He was allowed to return to Moscow State University in 1988.



Later that same year Ivanov, along with about a dozen other Soviet-based scholars, attended the First International Interdisciplinary Symposium on Language and Prehistory, organized by Vitaly Shevoroshkin and Benjamin Stolz of the Department of Slavic Languages and Literatures, University of Michigan (November 8-12, 1988).¹ This conference continued to foster the dialog on language in prehistory between Soviet and western researchers begun by Hal Fleming in 1986. Ivanov gave two presentations, “On Protolanguages” and “Illič-Svityč and the Development of Indo-European and Kartvelian Linguistics.”

Ivanov was highly active in many fields and several institutions, including the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R., the U.S.S.R. Writers’ Union, Stanford University, the State Library for Foreign Literature in Moscow, the Institute for the Theory and History of World Culture at Moscow State University, and the University of California, Los Angeles (from 1991 onward).

Together with the Georgian scholar Tamaz V. Gamkrelidze, Ivanov authored *Indoevropskij jazyk i indoevropejcy* (1984), later translated by Johanna Nichols as *Indo-European and the Indo-Europeans* (1994-1995). This was possibly his most influential work, which reiterated the glottalic theory of Indo-European consonantism (independently proposed by the American Paul Hopper) and theorized about an Armenian homeland and subsequent migrations of Proto-Indo-European speakers.

Ivanov received abundant accolades, including the Russian Presidential Prize for Contributions to Russian Art and Literature in 2004, full member of the Russian Academy of Sciences, honorary member of the Linguistic Society of America and fellow of the British Academy. He was the author of more than 15 books and 1,000 journal articles and was the editor in chief of *Elementa: the Journal of Slavic Studies and Comparative Cultural Semiotics*. Due to Ivanov’s huge scholarly output we shall not attempt to add a bibliographical catalog here.

V.V. Ivanov died on October 7, 2017, at the age of 88.

1. See *Mother Tongue* XIII (2008). The issue was dedicated to commemorating *Twenty Years of Language in Prehistory* • *Ann Arbor Symposium* • November 1988.

Sergej Aleksandrovič Jatsemirskij (1980–2017)

It is distressing to report the passing of our young colleague, Sergej Jatsemirskij, a specialist in extinct Mediterranean languages and contributor to this journal. Sergej attended Nižnij Novgorod State University and earned the equivalents to the B.A. and M.A., 1997-2003. His post-graduate studies were pursued at the Russian State University for the Humanities, Moscow, from October 2003 to March 2006, where he completed his Ph.D. degree, specializing in comparative historical, typological and contrastive linguistics, within which his field was the vanished pre-Indo-European languages of southern Europe and Cyprus (Tyrrhenian, Minoan, Sardinian), Greek, Latin and other Italic languages, and the formation and history of the Romance languages. His post-graduate study was guided by the renowned Vladimir Dybo.



His dissertation was titled “Problems of the morphology of the Tyrrhenian languages.” His 2011 book, published in Russia, was to a certain extent a continuation of the Ph.D. thesis on the Tyrrhenian languages and also includes a description of the Minoan language of Crete, in accordance with the hypothesis proposed by the author about the genetic relationship of these idioms. Besides the comparative description (phonetics, morphology, word formation) it contains extralinguistic information about the speakers of these languages, the characteristics of written monuments and other sources, a number of actual inscriptions, as well as a description of some methods of deciphering and combinatorial analysis. The monograph is intended to fill the gap that has arisen in the comparative study of all these languages.

Sergej was stricken by pancreatic cancer, and died on May 30, 2017. Sergej’s last book, *A Comparative Description of Minoan, Etruscan and the Languages Related to Them*, is scheduled for publication soon.

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Introduction to Mother Tongue XXI • 2016

This issue features a state-of-the-art discussion of the taxonomic structure and history of the native languages of the Caucasus region. After excluding **Indo-European** languages of the region (mainly Armenian, Ossetic, Kurdish, Persian, Tati, and pockets of Greek; more recently, Russian and Ukrainian); **Turkic** (Azeri, Qumüq, Nogai, Balqar-Karachay, Karapapak, Turkmen); **Mongolic** (Qalmuq); and **Semitic** (Assyrian/Neo-Aramaic, Arabic), we are left with the universally acknowledged autochthonous languages of the Caucasus:¹

Kartvelian (also known as *South Caucasian*): Georgian, Megrelian, Laz Svan.

West Caucasian (or *Northwest Caucasian*, or *Abkhazo-Adyghean*): Abkhaz, Abaza, Circassian (Adyghe, Kabardian), and the extinct Ubykh.

East Caucasian (or *Northeast Caucasian*, or *Nakh-Daghestanian*): a large group of 30–35 languages, divided into the subfamilies *Nakh* (Chechen, Ingush, etc.); *Avar-Andian* (Avar, Tindi, etc.); *Tsezian* (Tsezi, Hunzib, etc.); *Lezgian* (Lezgi, Tabasaran, etc.); and the isolates *Dargi*, *Lak* and *Khinalug*.

A question of long standing has been whether, or in which ways, these three indigenous Caucasian families are interrelated. The problems are complicated by extreme diversity of the languages in question, and the exceptional phonetic complexity of most of them.

The most liberal or lumping view is known as the *Ibero-Caucasian* hypothesis, which includes all three groups. The history of this model has been thoroughly discussed by Kevin Tuite² where it is noted that Giorgi C’ereteli characterized Ibero-Caucasian as “more a matter of faith than of knowledge; and however strong that faith might be, it cannot by mere force change the position on [genetic] relatedness.” Today, according to Tuite, “support for the genetic unity of the three groups of indigenous Caucasian languages has all but evaporated among linguists who work on these languages.” It seems that Ibero-Caucasian is based more on a regionalistic feeling, stressing the prestige of Georgian, than on purely linguistic evidence. It is true that all the autochthonous Caucasian languages share certain features, but they are mostly typological phonetic and syntactic structures, and loanwords in all directions. Some of these *Sprachbund* features are also shared with non-indigenous languages like Armenian and Ossetic.³

1. Thanks to Wolfgang Schulze: *Zur Sprachgeschichte des Kaukasus*. <http://www.ats.lmu.de/index.php> W.Schulze@lrz.uni-muenchen.de

2. Tuite, Kevin. 2008. “The Rise and Fall and Revival of the Ibero-Caucasian Hypothesis.” *Historiographia Linguistica* 35.1-2: 23–82. (Note that “Ibero-” here has no connection with the Iberia of western Europe, but refers to the ancient Caucasian kingdom of Iberia, where an older form of Georgian was spoken.)

3. E.g., though the Ossetic dialects, Digor and Iron, are clearly Iranian in origin, NC influence has been so deep that Ossetic has borrowed words as basic as ‘hand’, ‘foot’, and ‘mouth’ from NC (specifically Nakh):

On the other hand, the idea that West Caucasian and East Caucasian *are* related, forming a “North Caucasian” family, has gained traction, in large part due to the pioneering work of Nikolai Trubetzkoy and Georges Dumézil (see Chirikba’s article in this issue). North Caucasian (NC) is particularly well received among the long-range comparativists who support the Nostratic hypothesis, *i.e.*, the “Moscow School” and their associates. Nostraticists in general exclude the NC family from Nostratic, but include Kartvelian. In his current model Allan Bomhard regards Kartvelian as a member of Nostratic, but outside of the core Eurasiatic group.⁴ Joseph Greenberg concurred: “Of the three groups—Afro-Asiatic, Dravidian, and Kartvelian—the last appears to be closest to Eurasiatic. However, I consider it not to be a member of Eurasiatic proper, in which I am in agreement with Bomhard and Kerns”⁵ Also in accord with Bomhard and other Nostraticists, NC is not a member of Greenberg’s Eurasiatic. However, in Bomhard’s view, “Proto-Indo-European proper is the result of the imposition of a Eurasiatic language on a population speaking one or more primordial Northwest Caucasian languages, as first hinted at by Uhlenbeck” (see Bomhard’s article in this issue).

We are privileged to present discussion articles from three of the major experts on West and East Caucasian languages. Viacheslav Chirikba, a native Abkhazian, leads off with his theory that a proto-language closely resembling Proto-East Caucasian was deeply affected by some kind of social upheaval and contact with another language or languages, diverged from its sister dialect and was radically transformed into a structurally different idiom that became Proto-West Caucasian. The West Caucasian specialist John Colarusso and East Caucasian authority Wolfgang Schulze offer their observations on this hypothesis, as does Václav Blažek from a more general comparativist view.

On account of its close relevance to the issues discussed here, we are reprinting Sergei Starostin’s paper on Indo-European-North Caucasian Isoglosses, first published in 1988 in Russian. Starostin’s theory is basically similar to Bomhard’s, and attributes lexical similarities to contacts between PNC and PIE at the beginning of the fifth millennium BCE, and the NC contacts were with a “PNC dialect” which had already diverged somewhat from the original common PNC language. Hence the articles by Chirikba, Bomhard, and Starostin all propose linguistic contacts between some form of NC and another language.

Digor *k’ox* ‘hand’, *k’ax* ‘foot’, *dzux* ‘mouth’; cf. Chechen *küg* ‘hand’, *kog* ‘foot’, *zʁok* ‘beak’. Note that Ossetic has also borrowed glottalized consonants, but not necessarily corresponding in distribution to the respective NC loanwords (at least in the cases cited here). The Ossetians have inhabited a plateau in the center of the Caucasus, surrounded by NC and Kartvelian speakers, for about seven centuries (Fridrik Thordarson. 1973. “Ossetic and Caucasian: Stray Notes.” *Norsk Tidsskrift for Sprogvidenskap* 27: 85–92.)

4. *A Comprehensive Introduction to Nostratic Comparative Linguistics: With Special Reference to Indo-European*. 3rd edition, Prepublication Draft, December 2017. Florence, South Carolina.

5. Greenberg, Joseph H. 2000. *Indo-European and Its Closest Relatives: The Eurasiatic Language Family. Volume 1, Grammar*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.

John Bengtson has added some notes about Basque words that are deemed cognate with the NC words discussed, according to the putative Euskaro-Caucasian hypothesis.

From North to North West: How North-West Caucasian Evolved from North Caucasian

Viacheslav A. Chirikba
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The comparison of (North-)West Caucasian with (North-)East Caucasian languages suggests that early Proto-West Caucasian underwent a fundamental reshaping of its phonological, morphological and syntactic structures, as a result of which it became analytical, with elementary inflection and main grammatical roles being expressed by lexical means, word order and probably also by tones. The subsequent development of compounding and incorporation resulted in a prefixing polypersonal polysynthetic agglutinative language type typical for modern West Caucasian languages. The main evolutionary line from a North Caucasian dialect close to East Caucasian to modern West Caucasian languages was thus from agglutinative to the analytical language-type, due to a near complete loss of inflection, and then to the agglutinative polysynthetic type. Although these changes blurred the genetic relationship between West Caucasian and East Caucasian languages, however, this can be proven by applying standard procedures of comparative-historical linguistics.

1. The West Caucasian languages.¹

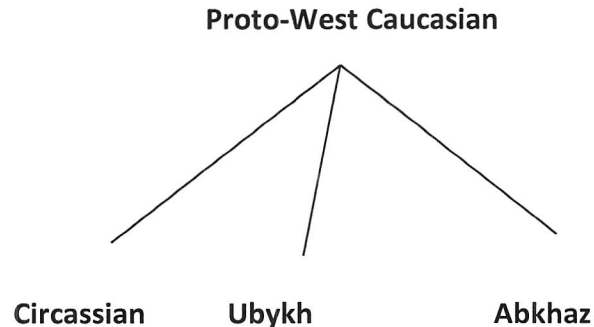
The West Caucasian (WC), or Abkhazo-Adyghean languages constitute a branch of the North Caucasian (NC) linguistic family, which consists of five languages: Abkhaz and Abaza (the Abkhaz sub-group), Adyghe and Kabardian (the Circassian sub-group), and Ubykh. The traditional habitat of these languages is the Western Caucasus, where they are still spoken, with the exception of the extinct Ubykh.

Typologically, the WC languages represent a rather idiosyncratic linguistic type not occurring elsewhere in Eurasia. In phonology, they are notorious for huge consonantal inventories, reaching a maximum of eighty phonemes in Ubykh, and for minimal vocalic contrasts: three vowels in Circassian and Ubykh and only two in Abkhaz/Abaza. In grammar, these languages are characterized, on the one hand, by highly developed verbal systems: prolific verbal prefixation, polypersonalism (the coding of up to four, as in Abkhaz, and even five, as in Circassian, arguments on the verbal form). On the other hand, they have only elementary nominal inflection: Circassian has four cases, Ubykh has two, and Abkhaz/Abaza none at all. Abkhaz stands apart even among its sister-languages in expressing ergative alignment solely by the relative order of

1. I thank Dr. B.G. Hewitt and two anonymous reviewers for valuable comments.

agreement markers and in having a category of nominal classes and gender, absent in Circassian and Ubykh.

(1)



However, despite marked differences such as those mentioned here, in general all five WC languages exhibit uniformity in their overall phonological and grammatical makeup, which can be attributed to the result of shared inheritance, parallel development and millennia-long contact.

The other North Caucasian branch is Nakh-Daghestanian or East Caucasian (EC), which consists of ca. 30 languages, distributed into six groups: Nax, Lezgi, Avaro-Ando-Tsez, Lak, Dargi and Khinalygh.

In many respects, WC and EC represent very similar systems. The main parameters of their phonological structures coincide. These include the four-way distinction in laryngeal features: voiced *vs.* voiceless aspirated (or lax) *vs.* voiceless unaspirated (or strong/tense) *vs.* glottalized. The property of both systems are lateral obstruents, which are universally rare and, with some exceptions, unique in Eurasia. Another shared feature is richness of post-velar articulations and of sibilant systems (affricates and fricatives). Morphophonologically, both families are marked for the use of Ablaut. Another idiosyncratic trait uniting EC and WC families is the presence of the system of nominal classes. Morphosyntactically they are representatives of ergative alignment. By themselves, all these traits represent rather specific phenomena on the background of the languages of Eurasia.

However, in other fundamental aspects WC and EC are strikingly different: unlike polysynthetic WC languages, the languages of the EC branch are moderately synthetic with elements of analyticism. Besides, in sharp contrast to mainly prefixing WC, which have an elementary nominal inflection, EC languages are characterized by a prevailing suffixation and a developed nominal inflection.

What I purport to discuss in this paper is how WC could arrive in some important aspects to a strikingly different system from the one represented by EC, which latter, as some specialists maintain, continue the main parameters of the NC proto-language.²

2. A short history of WC and NC comparative research.

The genetic relationship between the WC languages was first noticed in the second half of the 18th century by the German scientist Johann Anton Güldenstädt (cf. his work published posthumously in 1834), according to whom Abkhaz and Circassian had common origin.³ This opinion was repeated by the British author George Ellis (1788: 18), who wrote: “The Abkhas speak an original language, essentially different from all the known languages, though appearing to have a very remote affinity with that of the Circassians”.

Güldenstädt’s compatriot Peter Simon Pallas (1803), though initially having remarked about “some affinity” between Circassian and Abkhaz (Abasa) (p. 329), went on further in his book claiming that Abkhaz, despite some Circassian loanwords, had not the slightest resemblance to any European or Asiatic language.⁴ The same erroneous claim is made for Circassian.⁵ Pallas’ misleading conclusion was echoed half a century later by the early Russian Caucasologist and the author of a Circassian-Russian dictionary, Leontij Liulie (1857): “The Circassians, i.e. Adyghe and Kabardians, speak the Adyghe language; while the Abkhazians – the Abkhaz language and both languages have not the slightest affinity between them.”

Another celebrated German, Julius von Klaproth, in his *Travels in the Caucasus and Georgia*, published in 1814, literally follows Pallas’ words on the lack of relationship between Circassian and Abkhaz.⁶ However, in his later work *Asia Polyglotta* (1823), on examining the data, he changed his view and united both Circassian and Abkhaz into one genetic taxon, “West Caucasian” (p. 129); cf. also Klaproth (1827: 55, 82). The insightful judgments of Güldenstädt and Klaproth based on the examination of word-lists of the respective languages were supported by the German orientalist Georg Rosen (1846), who also noted the closeness of Abkhaz to Circassian. Finally, in the second half of the 19th

2. “While comparing the reconstructed PEC and PWC systems it became clear that the second system can be almost completely deduced from the first [one]. Thus the finally obtained Proto-North-Caucasian phonological system virtually coincides with the PEC...” (NCED 39-40).

3. “Die Abchasetische oder Abasaische und Tscherkessische Sprache haben eine Mutter sind aber so verschiedene Mundarten derselben, dass man die Verwandtschaft nicht überall findet, sondern theils mühsam suchen muss. Meine Sprachproben zeigen dieses” (Güldenstädt 1834: 131-132).

4. “Ihre ganz fremde Sprache hat, wie aus dem *Wörterbuche aller Sprachen* zu ersehen ist (wenige Tscherkessische Wörter ausgenommen), mit keiner bekannten Europäischen und Asiatischen Sprache die geringste Aehnlichkeit” (Pallas 1803: 335).

5. “Ja vielleicht ist die Tscherkessische, mit keiner andern verwandte Sprache ursprünglich eine Art von Rothwälsch gewesen” (p. 352).

6. “Their peculiar language has, with the exception of a few Tscherkessian words, no resemblances to any European or Asiatic tongue” (Klaproth 1814: 247).

century the great Russian Caucasologist Baron Peter von Uslar (1887: 82, 85), the author of the first Abkhaz grammar and the first grammatical sketch of Ubykh, definitively asserted the genetic kinship existing between Circassian, Abkhaz and Ubykh.⁷

In 1932, young Frenchman George Dumézil published a study of comparative morphology of the WC languages. Though this work became a valuable contribution to WC research, Dumézil's morphological comparisons were not supported by, or based on, a system of regular sound correspondences. Dumézil himself was aware of the methodological shortcomings of such an approach, which is clear from the foreword to his book (p. 8).

It was, again, Julius von Klaproth, who in his *Asia Polyglotta* (1823: 124) first suggested the connection between the WC and EC languages and the existence of the North Caucasian family (which he called "Caucasian") as an independent genetic taxon. Klaproth also proposed the internal classification of the "Caucasian" family into West Caucasian, East Caucasian, and Central Caucasian ("Mittel-Kaukasier"), i.e. Nakh, regarding the (North) Caucasian family as indigenous to the Caucasus and separating it from Kartvelian languages, which he saw as a genetically isolated taxon. He wrote: "Although the languages of the [North] Caucasian tribes significantly deviate from each other, and at first sight seem to be absolutely different, yet by a closer examination one does find undoubted family affinities and common points" (op.cit., 133).

A hundred years later after the publication of Klaproth's monumental work, the great Russian philologist Nikolay Trubetzkoy was the first to put the comparison of the NC languages on a solid scientific base. In his 1922 article, he insisted that "In order to prove a genetic relationship, it is necessary first of all to establish phonetic correspondences, to demonstrate their regularity, to single out the exceptions, and to scrupulously compare the grammatical forms" (p. 185). On the comparison of morphological elements only, Trubetzkoy (ibid.) remarked: "Linguists are convinced of the relationship of Greek, Sanskrit and Latin not due to more or less similar usage of the genitive or accusative cases, but due to the existence of consonantal correspondences between one or another phoneme of Greek and one or another phoneme of Sanskrit and Latin".

Having laid down rigorous methodological prerequisites for the comparative-historical study of the Caucasian languages, Trubetzkoy successfully demonstrated that methods, used to prove the relationship between the IE languages, many of which boasted ancient literary traditions, are fully applicable to unwritten languages of the Northern Caucasus through the examination of phonemic correspondences between the

7. "... я извлек для себя точное убеждение в родстве адыгского языка с убыхским и абхазским" (p. 85).

modern dialects. Especially compelling were regular sound correspondences established by Trubetzkoy (1922: 188-9) in the series of obstruent laterals:⁸

(2)	Circ	Ub	Abx		Circ	Ub	Abx	
	<i>L</i>	<i>L</i>	<i>žʲ</i>	:	<i>bLə</i>	<i>bLə</i>	<i>bžʲ</i>	seven
					<i>Lə</i>		<i>žʲə</i>	meat, flesh
	<i>λ</i>	<i>λ</i>	<i>šʲ</i>	:	<i>pλə</i>		<i>pšʲə</i>	red
					<i>λə</i>		<i>šʲa</i>	blood
	<i>λ'</i>	<i>λ'</i>	<i>šʲ</i>	:	<i>pλ'ə</i>	<i>pλ'ə</i>	<i>pšʲ</i>	four
					<i>λ'ə</i>		<i>šʲ</i>	to kill (Circ, Abx); to die (Circ)

In these examples, Abx back sibilant fricatives are innovations in comparison to more archaic Circ and Ub lateral consonants. Similar correspondences in laterals were established by Trubetzkoy (op.cit., p. 189-197) within the EC group, and finally between the EC and WC branches. Though not all of his correspondences and reconstructions now seem to be correct (see Starostin's comments in Trubetzkoy 1987: 438-447), others are still valid, cf. the correspondences between EC strong and strong glottalized lateral affricates *λ:*, *λ':* and WC voiced lateral fricative *L*:

(3)	'seven'	Avar <i>anλ:-</i> , Archi <i>wiλa-</i>	:	Circ <i>bLə</i> , Ub <i>bLə</i> , Abx <i>bžʲ</i>
	'meat'	Andi <i>riλ:i</i> , Archi <i>aλ':</i>	:	Circ <i>Lə</i> , Abx <i>žʲə</i>
	'ice'	Archi <i>muλ':a-λ'</i>	:	Circ <i>məLə</i>

From these correspondences, Trubetzkoy drew important conclusions that the presence of lateral consonants in Avaro-Andi and in WC languages cannot be fortuitous, and that lateral consonants already existed in the NC proto-language (op.cit., p. 200). He emphasized that the great typological difference between EC and WC means that their genetic relationship is not self-evident and should be specially proven.

Results of Trubetzkoy's work convinced a number of Caucasian linguists in the existence of an independent North Caucasian family. G. Deeters (1931: 290) wrote that the relationship between the NWC and NEC languages was proven by Trubetzkoy, and that the South Caucasian (Kartvelian) languages do not seem to be related to this family. In another paper, Deeters (1955: 26) asserts, referring to the works by Trubetzkoy, that there are undoubted lexical similarities between the NWC and NEC groups. K.-H. Schmidt (1972: 25) wrote that the genetic relationship between the NEC and NWC languages, after the famous 1930 article by Trubetzkoy "Nordkaukasische

8. Transcription used in this paper: *λ* – voiceless obstruent lateral affricate, *λ:* – strong voiceless lateral affricate, *λ':* – strong voiceless glottalized lateral affricate, *L* – voiced obstruent lateral fricative, *λ* – voiceless obstruent lateral fricative, *λ'* – voiceless glottalized lateral fricative; the sign : renders vocalic or consonantal length/strength, *v* – voice, *'* – glottalization, *ʲ* – palatalization, *ʷ* – labialization.

Wortgleichungen,” must be regarded as proven. A similar idea was expressed somewhat more cautiously by the Dutch Caucasologist A.H. Kuipers (1963: 315): “The existence of a genetic relationship between N[orth-]W[est] and N[orth-]E[ast] Cauc.[asian] is probable; the relations of S[outh] Cauc.[asian] to this N[orthern] group so far remain unclear ... This appraisal of the possible genetic relationships between the three groups is based on the number of reasonable etymologies that have been proposed, cf. especially N.S. Trubetzkoy, “Nordkaukasische Wortgleichungen.”

Nearly at the same time as Trubetzkoy, George Dumézil in the cited above 1932 book rather eloquently expressed his opinion on the North Caucasian relationship: “Que les langues caucasiennes du Nord-Ouest soient apparentées à celles du Centre et du Nord-Est (tchéchéne et langues du Daghestan), ce n’est pas une hypothèse, c’est un fait” (p. 8). In view of Dumézil’s disciple and a prominent Caucasologist himself, George Charachidzé (1967: 30), the genetic relationship between the two northern families, NWC and NEC, seems to be quite certain.

The author of the present article too deems the relationship between the WC and EC families as basically proven, thanks to works by N. Trubetzkoy, G. Dumézil, A. Shagirov, B. Balkarov, and especially A. Abdokov, S. Starostin and S. Nikolayev. The overall weight of revealed lexical material common to both NC branches, and, importantly, systemic phonemic correspondences established on the basis of lexical comparisons, despite the fact that many details in the reconstruction of individual NC groups and the parental NC proto-language still have to be worked out, render the validity of the North Caucasian linguistic family beyond any reasonable doubt.⁹

The notion of genetic relationship between WC and EC is supported by quite a number of prominent Caucasian scholars, such as G. Dumézil, G. Charachidzé, M. Kumakhov, A. Shagirov, S. Kodzasov, M. Alekseev, Y. Testelelets, etc. The critics of this theory so far have failed to produce any compelling argumentation, which would explain numerous lexical correspondences in basic vocabulary as observed between WC and EC families by anything other than genetic inheritance. Typically, the critique comes from authors who are not themselves historical linguists, or who work exclusively on one branch of the NC family, being unfamiliar with the other, or even from those who work on the unrelated Kartvelian family.

In modern times, the major contribution to the NC comparative studies have been made by the Kabardian scholar Auez Abdokov (1981; 1983) and two Moscow linguists Sergei Nikolayev and Sergei Starostin (NCED). The results of their work became two NC comparative dictionaries. These works, especially the great *A North Caucasian Etymological Dictionary* by Nikolayev and Starostin (NCED), became real milestones in the field of NC comparative studies. Both dictionaries contain a large number of lexical correspondences, which prove the existence of the ancient relationship between these two

9. Cf. Chirikba (2008: 33-36) on various theories concerning the issue of genetic relationship between the indigenous Caucasian languages.

branches. NCED presents an elaborate system of correspondences between WC and EC phonemes established on the basis of systemic comparison of relevant lexical items of both branches. However, even with this undoubted progress, there remains much to be done in working out many details and solving many remaining problems in the reconstruction of individual NC branches and of their ancestral language.

John Colarusso (1989: 26-27) describes some of the processes within WC, which blurred the original picture of its relation to EC: “Most of the cognates in this family are hidden because the languages have levelled off an old grammatical class system in varying ways. The surviving grammatical class prefixes are primarily reflected as secondary rounding or palatalization on the consonant. This assumption produces a PNWC that closely resembles a Northeast Caucasian language”.

3. The Reconstruction of PWC.

At present, there exist several versions of a PWC reconstruction: the one proposed by S. Starostin (1978; NCED), the systems proposed by B. Balkarov (1979), A. Abdokov (1983), J. Colarusso (1989: 28) and by the author of the present paper (Chirikba 1996).

S. Starostin’s short paper (1978) contains the chart of reconstructed phonemes with correspondences in individual languages, but offered no discussion or examples; all these appeared 16 years later in his and S. Nikolayev’s *North Caucasian Etymological Dictionary* (NCED 1994; reprint 2007). A much more elaborated presentation of his PWC reconstruction is given in Starostin’s review (2007) of my 1996 book.

The version of PWC reconstruction proposed by B. Balkarov (1979: 80) differs considerably from Starostin’s system and contains a more modest inventory of 33 consonant phonemes and 2 vowels (*a*, *ə*). The author posits a four-fold set of bilabial and velar stops (voiced, aspirated, non-aspirated and glottalized), and labialization as a distinctive feature. The absence in his PWC scheme of dental stops and simple sibilants makes an impression of omissions due to typographic reasons, though this is just a conjecture. A. Abdokov (1983), though he is using the reconstructed PWC forms in his PNC dictionary, does not present a chart of reconstructed PWC phonemes. J. Colarusso (1989: 28) in the article devoted to the discussion of various aspects of the PWC reconstruction proposes a tentative chart of PWC phoneme system, which contains sets of voiced, aspirated, non-aspirated and glottalized consonants, as well as palatal(ized) affricates and fricatives. He does not reconstruct labialization as a distinctive feature, and presents a system of four (plus two, in parentheses) vowels.

My ideas of PWC reconstruction (Chirikba 1996) are closer to those put forward by S. Starostin. Though our reconstructed models differ in many details, they are based on the following common principles, a part of which coincide with the reconstructed systems proposed by previous authors. The PWC consonant system comprised three classes of phonemes: obstruents, resonants and glides. The obstruent system was based on a four-way contrast in the laryngeal features (voiced ~ voiceless ~ tense/strong ~

glottalized/ejective), and on a four-way timbre contrast (simple ~ palatalized ~ labialized ~ palatalized-labialized). Besides, I agree with Starostin on the need of the reconstruction of pharyngealization as a distinctive feature.

It is probably worth commenting on some of the reconstructed consonant types. In contrast to the paradigmatic richness of the class of obstruents, PWC resonants, glides and vowels were characterized by simplicity.

Though both palatalization and labialization occur in the world's languages, what is extremely rare is the phonemically distinctive combination of these features.¹⁰ The necessity to reconstruct a set of labialized-palatalized obstruents, proposed by Starostin (cf. NCED 185, 189, etc.), is dictated by the need to account for two different sets of WC correspondences, as shown on the chart below in (6). Labialized-palatalized consonants are reconstructed for all PWC obstruent series, with the exception of the labial one (though, unlike my reconstruction, in NCED 184 the labialized-palatalized labials are also postulated). Being phonetically unstable, they were not preserved in any of the descendant languages, leaving different reflexes. The source of this correspondence – various reflexes of early PWC combinations $C+\ddot{o}$ and $C+\ddot{u}$, which were reflected in PCirc and PAbx as C^w , and in PUb as C^j .

4. The origin of the PWC phonemic system.

The phonological model of late PWC in essence did not differ substantially from that of its modern descendants. It was a “consonantal” language, with a huge qualitative and quantitative diversity of consonants and a bivocalic, “linear” vocalic system, distinguished by the degree of openness. The striking disproportion between the class of obstruent consonants and the class of vowels is explained by the fact that the timbre features, which in the majority of languages are normally in the property of vowels, in PWC were transposed to the consonants (cf. Starostin 1978: 96; NCED 43, 73, 192; Abdokov 1983: 25-29; Colarusso 1989: 26). The origin of the hypertrophic WC consonant system can thus be explained as a result of a re-analysis of the PWC CV-sequences according to the following formula (the sign v denotes the vocalic timbre):

$$(4) \quad /C+V^v/ \Rightarrow [C+V^v] \sim [C^v+V] \Rightarrow /C^v+V/$$

The four-fold timbre contrast in consonants ($C : C^j : C^w : C^{wj}$) can be regarded as a reflection of the original vocalic oppositions. Furthermore, the character of the vowel

10. However, they are possible on the phonetic level: labialized fricatives in Abkhaz, or dentolabialized consonants in isolects of Lezgi are phonetically palatalized. The rarity of a phonemically significant combination of palatalization and labialization can be explained by the insufficient articulatory and acoustical contrast between the simple labialized and labialized-palatalized phonetic types (cf. Chirikba 1991: 96, 102).

following the consonant (i.e. either *a* or *ə*) can serve as an indication of the quality of the original vowel.

(5)	<u>early PWC</u>	>	<u>late PWC</u>		<u>early PWC</u>	>	<u>late PWC</u>
	* <i>Ca</i>		* <i>Ca</i>		* <i>Ci</i>		* <i>Cə</i>
	* <i>Cə</i>		* <i>Cə</i>		* <i>Co</i>		* <i>C^wa</i>
	* <i>Ce</i>		* <i>C'a</i>		* <i>Cu</i>		* <i>C^wə</i>

However, in two cases, the reflexes in Ub are different from Circ and Abx, which suggests the reconstruction of two additional vowels:

(6)	early PWC	>	PWC	>	PCirc		PUb		PAbx
	* <i>Cö</i>		* <i>C^{wj}a</i>		* <i>C^wa</i>		* <i>C'a</i>		* <i>C^wa</i>
	* <i>Cü</i>		* <i>C^{wj}ə</i>		* <i>C^wə</i>		* <i>C'ə</i>		* <i>C^wə</i>

Examples: Circ *g^wə*, Ub *g'a*, Abx *g^wə* 'heart'; Circ *k^wa/ə* 'to go (a distance)', Ub *k'a* 'to go', probably also Abx *k^wa-ša* 'to dance', etc.; Abx *mj^wa* (< PAbx **məf^wa*), Ub *məy'a* 'road, way', Circ *y^wa/ə* (without the initial bilabial) in *y^wa-g^wə* 'road, way' (*g^wə* 'surface'), *la-y^wa* 'path'.

On the basis of these correspondences, the following Pre-PWC vocalic system can be reconstructed: two timbre neutral, four rounded, two front rounded and two front unrounded vowels:

(7)				
	* <i>i</i>	* <i>ü</i>		* <i>u</i>
	* <i>e</i>	* <i>ö</i>	* <i>ə</i>	* <i>o</i>
			* <i>a</i>	

4.1. It seems that the source of labialization could be not only vowels placed after the consonant, but also vowels preposed to it, as suggested by East Caucasian cognates, cf. the following examples:

(a) PNC **C+u* > PWC **C^w* :

Avar *nisu*, dial. *nišu*, Andi *iso*, Tsez *izu*, Gin *ižu*, Xvar *ĩžu*, Gunz *əžu*, Dargi *nusi*, Lezgi *nasu*, Bud *musu*, cf. PWC > PAbx **aš^wə* 'cheese';

Chech, Ing, Bats *šu*, Lak *zu*, Aghul *ču-n*, Tsax *šu*, Archi *ž^we-n*, Xin *zu-r*, cf. PWC **s^wa* 'you (pl.)'.

(b) PNC **u+C* > PWC **C^w* :

Axv *ūs:i*, Cham *ūs:*, Tindi, Kar, Botl, Godob *unš:i*, Bagv *unš:*, cf. PWC > PAbx **nəš^{wə}* ‘soil, clay’; the intermediate stage must have been early PWC **nušə*, with a metathesis (*unš-* > **nuš-*), if one regards the EC forms as original;
Avar *oc*, Gin *ūs*, Bezh, Gunz *ōs*, Dargi *unc*, Udi *us*, cf. PWC **c:^{wə}* ‘ox, bull’.

Sometimes a metathesis of the labialization element can be supposed in individual dialects, resulting in a cluster with initial bilabial, cf. PLezgi **c^w:er* ‘name’¹¹ (Tab *č^w:ur*, Archi *c^w’or*) vs. Ub *p^wc’a* ‘name’, cf. CCirc **c’a*; PDargi **ɣurx:^{wi}* ‘sea’ vs. Ub *š^wa*, but PAbx **mašəna* ‘sea’, probably, from an earlier **mšəna* < *š^wəna* < **λ^{wə}-na*, cf. CCirc **xə* (PWC **λ^{wə}*); in both cases CCirc lost all traces of labialization altogether.

In some cases of labialization in WC, the EC correlates do not give any indication as to its source, and in this case it is PWC that can be used for introducing this feature in the NC proto-form, cf. Chech, Ing *malχ* ‘sun’, Andi, Axv, Tindi, Godob *miłi* ‘sun’, Cham *mił* ‘sun, day’ vs. PWC **ma/əλ^{wi}a* > Abx *a-mš*, Ub *məs^wa*, Kab *max^we* ‘day’; Avar *piq:* ‘fruit’, Godob *perq:i*, Kar *biq:e* ‘apricot’, Lak *piq* ‘bad fruit’ vs. PWC **pq:^{wə}* > Ad *pq:^{wə}//pχə*, Abx *a-ph^wa* ‘prune’, Ub *pqə* ‘a kind of prune with big fruit’.¹²

4.2. Concerning the opposition “lax ~ tense”, the authors of NCED (p. 43) propose to see its source in the early distinction between long and short vowels: before long PNC vowels PWC stops and affricates turned into tense consonants. I will accept here this explanation as a working hypothesis.

4.3. We arrive thus at a rather simplified early PWC obstruent inventory, consisting of voiced (*C^w*), voiceless aspirated (*C^h*), and glottalized (*C^ʔ*) correlates.

(8) *A tentative inventory of early PWC consonant system*

b	p ^h	p'			m	w		
d	t ^h	t'	ɟ	c	c'	z	s	n
			ʒ	č	č'	ž	š	r
			ʎ	λ	λ'	L	λ	l
g	k ^h	k'				ḡ	x	j

11. The PNC and PEC reconstructions are from NCED. Though not all reconstructed forms in NCED can be accepted without reservations, here I am more concerned with showing the general lines of the evolution of PWC, rather than with dwelling into the discussion of details of the reconstructed system.

12. It is interesting to note a structural and material parallelism of Abx *a-ph^wa-sa* ‘damson’, lit. ‘prune-small’ with Avar *sis:in-piq:* ‘damson’, although with a different order of constituents (Avar *sis:in* ‘little, small’, *piq:* ‘fruit’). It is also interesting to note a parallelism in the fluctuation on voicedness in the initial bilabial: Abx *a-ph^wa* ~ *a-bh^wa* ‘prune’, cf. North Avar *piq:* ~ South Avar *biχ*, Kar *biq:e* ‘fruit(s)’.

G	q ^h q'	γ	χ
	ʔ	ʕ	H

5. Theories concerning the WC root structure.

The seemingly predominantly monosyllabic WC root structure, which sets it apart from other indigenous languages of the Caucasus, has always intrigued linguists (cf. already de Charencey 1862; Bálint 1904: xi, xv, xix) and caused some of them to look at isolating languages for typological parallels.

5.1. Hyacinthe de Charencey.

In 1862, at the dawn of comparative and typological studies, the French philologist Hyacinthe de Charencey wrote about the same “primitive” monosyllabicity of Circassian and its sister-languages, on the one hand, and of Sino-Tibetan languages, on the other.¹³ De Charencey, who tried to demonstrate not only the structural but also a genetic closeness of the indigenous Caucasian languages to Sino-Tibetan, was obviously an early precursor of modern proponents of the Sino-Caucasian hypothesis, even though the attachment of Kartvelian and Vietnamese to, respectively, North Caucasian and Sino-Tibetan families is discarded by modern research. Like late Marr and Yakovlev (see below), de Charencey regarded the monosyllabicity of WC and Sino-Tibetan root to be original and archaic and thought that the other Caucasian languages transformed their “primitive monosyllabic structure” into the “agglomerating” (i.e. agglutinative) one under the influence of IE and Turanian languages. He even tried to place the original homeland of the peoples belonging to the “monosyllabic family” in areas between Armenia and to the south of Bactria, i.e. Central Asia, and thought that later they were split in two by the Indo-Europeans invading from the north, who pushed one part of them to the gorges of the Caucasus and the other to the Himalayas, whence they then spread to China (p. 12-13).

5.2. Nikolay Marr.

13. “Entre toutes les langues caucasiennes, le tscherkesse et les idiômes de peuplades voisines semble se rapprocher du manière plus spéciale du tibétain et de dialectes indigènes du Népal. Dans ces deux groupes d’idiômes, nous rencontrons, en effet, la même structure primitivement monosyllabique, la même formation, à une époque postérieure, de quelques dissyllabes, par addition particule déterminatives placées d’ordinaire à la fin du mot.” (p. 9-10).

The influential Russian/early Soviet philologist Nikolay Marr, the founder of the notorious “Japhetic” theory,¹⁴ in different works vacillated, in his typical manner, between regarding Abx as a product of an “extreme” evolution and, in later work, calling it an extraordinary archaic language. Thus, in his 1912 paper (reprinted in Marr 1938: 1-33) he was objecting to the opinions expressed by Uslar (1887: 37), who regarded Abx as representing the *primaeval* (“infantile”) state of a language on the basis of richness of its verbal forms, arguing that “even if Abx developed sophisticated verbal forms, it nevertheless possesses a degraded morphology; the loss of morphological expressiveness it compensates by syntactic means, and ... in general Abx demonstrates an extreme level of development” (Marr 1938: 2). The comparison of Abx monosyllabic roots with Kart polysyllabic roots suggested to him that Abx roots were historically worn, having lost final consonants and that monosyllabicity was thus of more recent origin (*ibid.*: 4, 27). He saw the evolution of Abx in the weakening of final syllables, which led to the loss of the original case endings, and in the increased role of prefixation, specifically noting the proclitization of originally enclitical pronominal particles (*ibid.*: 5-6).

In his later work Marr, however, radically departed from these views and started to regard Abx as frozen “on an exceptionally archaic stage of development”.¹⁵ Marr’s early conclusions, though based on the comparison of Abx with unrelated Kart languages, were nevertheless productive, presenting the WC monosyllabicity not as a static and frozen remnant of the distant glottogonic past, but rather as a result of a relatively later evolution from more complex structures.

5.3. Nikolay Yakovlev.

The other great Russian Caucasologist, Nikolay Yakovlev, echoing late Marr’s glottogonic ideas, spoke of the “amorphous” stage as the most archaic speech-form through which all human languages passed. He suggested that unlike other languages, the WC languages retained vivid vestiges of that ancient stage; the term “amorphous” was then used for the language type we now call “isolating”, and indeed, Yakovlev’s description of the “amorphous” structure (as in Yakovlev & Ašxamaf 1941: 7) by many parameters conforms to an isolating language-type.

14. Marr claimed that human language went through successive structural-grammatical stages – from amorphous to agglutinative and finally to fusional, whereby each stage directly corresponded to concrete social-economical and political systems (from earliest communes to a class society).

15. “[Мы застаем] абхазский на исключительно древней стадии развития” (Marr 1938: 381). On the eastern extreme of Asia, Marr (1936: 6) cited Chinese as being of “absolute typological antiquity” (“Китайский язык, его абсолютная типологическая древность и относительные эволюционные новшества”). Marr (1933: 243) wrote: “From this formal point of view Chinese stopped at that stage of development, when in the language of humanity there were no service [i.e. grammatical] forms, the relations between words were determined not by endings, as in Russian, but by word order. Such a phenomenon we find in the West, in the Mediterranean world, in a certain measure only on the eastern Black Sea coast in Abkhazia and in the eastern part of the Mediterranean itself, in Egypt.”

In his grammar of Adyghe, written together with Ašxamaf, Yakovlev describes the earliest stage of the “amorphous” structure of Adyghe and the way it evolved into the polysynthetic one (pp. 209, 237-8, 380-1, 406, 408). In his view, in the ancient period the language did not distinguish vowels (monovocalism). The root had a CV-structure and was equal to a phoneme, a syllable, a morpheme, and a word: it was a unitary complex, a “syllabo-phoneme”, comprised of a variable consonantal initial and an invariable (mono)vocalic finale. The words did not belong to concrete grammatical classes and lacked any inflection; their connections within the sentence were expressed by their relative order, intonation or accent. From monovocalic monosyllabic words then evolved monosyllabic words with the distinction of two vowels. Due to the growing need to create new words, compounding began to develop, hence the development of incorporation, which was followed by the development of agglutination and, finally, of polysynthesism.

Yakovlev points out the following vestiges of the “amorphous” stage in modern Adyghe (pp. 11, 208, 211, 241, 252-3, 255, 284-5, 381-2, 404, 414): the predominance of monosyllabic roots with consonant onset and vocalic finale (CV) as the primary root-type; a syllable is often equal to a morpheme (“seme”); many modern affixes can be traced back to independent roots/words; each word can become a verb or a substantive, as the reflection of the period when no formal grammatical classes of words existed, etc.

Even after the official condemnation of Marr’s Japhetic theory, in his later grammar of Abkhaz finished in 1951 (and published only in 2006), Yakovlev (p. 144-145) still speaks of vestiges of the amorphous stage in the evolution of Abx: “... the majority of current polysyllabic Abx words can be analysed into their component parts – the primary words/roots. From this, we can suppose that in some more or less distant epoch the language, from which Abx evolved, consisted of monosyllabic words/syllables. These words/syllables did not possess then any formal particles, either prefixes or suffixes. They remained unchanged in the sentence. All connections between words and their forms were expressed only syntactically, i.e. by the placing of words in the sentence, intonation, accent, gestures, real speech situation, etc. Such a language structure is usually called amorphous, isolating or monosyllabic... We find traces of the same structure elsewhere in the Caucasus (for instance, in the Circassian languages) and in other parts of the world (for example, in the majority of the Sudan languages in Africa, in the languages of Central America, in Chinese). One can even say that at a certain period of the development of society, all languages must have had such a structure. Only in Abkhaz and Circassian do we find it as a more or less preserved vestige of the past”.

5.4. Alexander Genko.

Yakovlev’s colleague, Alexander Genko, also spoke of residual monosyllabicity of the main word-stock of Abkhaz/Abaza and of residual analyticity of their linguistic structure, when all grammatical relations were expressed by lexical words (Genko 1955: 78; 1998: 377). Genko (published posthumously in 1998: 394) thought that the agglutinative structure of Abx evolved on the ruins of the former monosyllabic analytical one. However, he did not share (late) Marr’s and Yakovlev’s glottogonic views on monosyllabicity. In his grammar of Abaza, he emphasized that the predominance of

monosyllabic roots cannot be used as a proof of the archaic or primitive period in the evolution of Abaza, as the comparison with other Caucasian languages demonstrates that both monosyllabicity and polysemy of Abaza words can in a number of cases be the result of later simplifications and the falling together of originally more complex and differentiated sound combinations (Genko 1955: 78).

6. From North Caucasian to West Caucasian via an analytic stage?

It is logical to suppose that at a certain period of its history, a NC dialect which gave rise to PWC, in many respects resembled its sister (later > EC) dialects. This would imply a moderately synthetic structure with a tendency to analyticism; a moderately developed nominal and verbal inflection (including Ablaut); a relatively free word order; a moderately developed vocalism and well developed consonantism.

Trubetzkoy (1930a; reprint 1987: 281-282) was certainly right in rejecting Yakovlev's theory of primordial monosyllabicity of WC. Based on correspondences between WC and EC languages, Trubetzkoy argued for the secondary nature of many WC monosyllabic roots, which were the result of complex simplification processes. However, if we put aside Yakovlev's glottogenic approach, the idea that at a certain period in its history the WC passed through an analytical or isolating ("amorphous") stage, and later, due to compounding and incorporation, turned into an agglutinative polysynthetic language type, as we know it today, seems rather productive.

We can thus surmise that early PWC was subjected to a large-scale restructuring, leading to changes at the phonological, morphological and syntactic levels.

In phonology, the changes resulted in the elimination of (nearly) all clusters by dropping one of the consonants; in the loss of many unstressed syllables; in the shift of various root structures to CVCV and CV; in the shift of vocalic timbre onto consonants, leading to the reduction of vocalic contrasts (from at least eight to a binary system) and a significant increase in the number of consonants; in the probable development of a tonal system in the place of lost consonants or syllables.

In morphology the restructuring resulted in the loss of much of the old inflection and the development of analyticism, as well as the weakening of the nominal class system.

Syntactic changes manifested themselves in the increased importance of word order, which became the main means of expressing syntactic relations – on the background of the fading cross-referencing nominal class system.

As a result, the previously mainly synthetic pre-Proto West Caucasian language became analytical, as it happened, for example, in the history of modern Germanic or Romance languages. We can further surmise that at a later stage, the increased role of incorporation and compounding, as well as proclitization of formerly independent pronouns and adverbs, resulted in an agglutinative polysynthetic polypersonal prefixing language type, which was inherited by its modern descendants.

7. The fall of early PWC syllables (PNC *(CC)VC(C)V → PWC *CV).

The comparison with EC cognates proves that early PWC underwent a radical simplification of its root structure along the lines described above. In many cases syllables in poly-syllabic words were dropped, leading to the emergence of monosyllabic roots. Largely, this involved the initial syllables, which can indicate that they were unstressed:

(9) (C)V(C₁)C₁V₁ → C₁V₁

PLEzgi **ɣiɬ* 'e 'to die, kill', cf. PWC **ɣ'a/ə* 'to die, kill';
 PLEzgi **ɣac* 'a- 'to know; can', cf. PWC **c* 'a 'to know';
 PAvar-Andi **ɣumco*, cf. PWC **c*^w:ə 'ox, bull';
 PNax **mac* 'e, PAvar-Andi **noc* ':i, PTsez **nɔcə*, cf. PWC **c* 'a 'louse';
 PAvar-Andi **riɬ* ':i, Xin *lik*:a, cf. PWC **L*ə 'meat, flesh';
 PAvar-Andi **ɣiɬ*^wa, PDargi **ɣurči*, cf. PWC **č*^h*ɣwə* 'horse';
 PAvar-Andi **rok* 'wə, PTsez **rɔk* 'wə, PLEzgi **jirk* 'w, cf. PWC **g*^{wj}ə 'heart'.

In other cases, it was final (probably unstressed) syllables that were lost:

(10) C(C)V(C₁)C₁V₁ → C(˘)V

PAvar-Andi **colu*, PTsez **s:il*, PDargi **cula*, PLEzgi **sił*ː, Xin *culoz*, cf. PWC **c*:a 'tooth';
 PAvar-Andi **c* 'w:arhi (Axv *c* 'w:ari, Kar *c* 'w:aj, etc.), PDargi **zuri*, cf. PWC **c* 'w:a 'star';
 PAvar-Andi **rišin* (Avar *son*, dial. *šon*, Axv *reše*, Kar *rešin*, etc.), PLEzgi **s:än* (Archi *s:an*, Udi *usen*), cf. PWC **s*^wa/ə 'year';
 PAvar-Andi **c* ':iri (Avar *c:ar*, Axv, Kar *c* ':eri, etc.), PLEzgi **c* 'w:er (Tab *č* ':w^{ur}, Archi *c* 'or), cf. PWC *(p')*c* 'a 'name'.

Incidentally, late PWC clusters were also syllable-initial, which can indicate the place of the stress – on non-initial syllables.

8. Parallel simplification processes in EC languages.

It would be wrong to suggest that it was only WC that underwent significant evolution in the phonetic shape of words. The individual EC languages too underwent considerable changes, which often parallel their evolution in WC. I adduce here but a few examples, demonstrating parallel developments in EC and WC:

- (11) Abx *a-c*, Ad *ca*, Kab *ʒa*, Ub *ca-* (PWC **c:a* ‘tooth’), cf. Chech *ce-rg*, Ing *ca-rg*, Bats *ca-rk*’ (-*rg/-rk*’, diminutive suf.; PNax **ca*), Avar *ca* vs. Andi *sol*, Cham *sal^w*, Kar *sale*, Tindi, Botl, Bagv *salu* (< PAvar-Andi **colu*), Xvar *sel*, Bezh *sila*, Gunz *sila* (< PTsez **s:il*), Dargi *cula*, Tsax *sili*, Kryz, Bud *sil* (PLEzgi **sil:*), Xin *cul-oz* ‘tooth’.
- Abx *jac^wa*, Ub *c^wa-* (PWC **c^wa* ‘star’), cf. Avar *c^w:a*, Andi *c^w:a*, Cham *s^w:a* (PAvar-Andi **c^w:arhi*), Tsez *ca*, Gin *c^wa*, Xvar, Gunz *ca*, Bezh *cã* (PTsez **c^wã*), Lak *c^wu-ku* ‘star’ vs. Axv *c^w:ari*, Tindi *c:aru*; Kar *c^w:aj*, Bagv *c^w:ara*, Godob *c:aji*, Dargi dial. *zure* ‘star’.
- Circ *c’a*, Ub *p’c’a*, cf. Chech, Bats *c’e*, Ing *c’i*, Axv dial. *c’:e*, Cham *s’e:* (PAvar-Andi **c’:iri*), Tsez *ci*, Gin *ce*, Xvar *cã* (PTsez **c^wã*), Lak *c’a*, Dargi *zu*, Udi *c:i* (PLEzg **c^w:er*) vs. Avar *c’:ar*, Andi, Bagv *c’:er*, Axv, Kar, Botl *c’:eri*, Tindi *c’:era*, Godob *c:eri*, Tab *č^w:ur*, Archi *c’or* ‘name’.
- Abx *a-c^w*, Ad *c^w:ə*, Ub *c^wə* (PWC **c^w:ə* ‘ox’), cf. Avar *oc* (PAvar-Andi **ɔumco*), Tsez *is*, Gin *üš*, Xvar *ĩs*, Bezh, Gunz *õs* (PTsez **ɔs:*), Dargi Kub *us* (PDargi **ɔunc*), Udi *us* (PLEzgi **jamec*) vs. Andi *unso*, Axv *ũnča*, Cham, Tindi *musa*, Kar, Botl, Bagv, Godob *unsa*, Lak *nic*, Dargi *unc*, Lezgi, Tsax *jac*, Aghul *bec*, dial. *jac^w*, Xin *lac* ‘ox’.
- Ub *t’a-k^j* ‘louse’, *t’a-c^j* ‘nit’ (-*k^j* singularity suf., *c^j* ‘egg’; PWC **t’a*), Andi *t’a* ‘nit’ (PAvar-Andi **t’a(ɔ)na*), Lak *t’u*, Udi *t:e* ‘nit’ (PLEzg **nāt*) vs. Avar *t’iha*, Axv *t’ani*, Cham, Tindi, Botl, Bagv *t’ana*, Kar *t’ane*, Dargi *net*, Lezgi, Aghul *net*, Tab *nīt*, Rut *nāt*, Tsax, Archi *nat* ‘nit’.
- Abx *čə*, Circ *šə*, Ub *č^jə* (PWC **č^{hwj}ə*), cf. Avar *ču* (PAvar-Andi **ɔič^wa*), Lak *č^wu* vs. Andi *iča*, Axv, Tindi, Kar *ič^wa*, Cham *iša*, Botl, Godob *iča*, Bagv *ič^w*, Dargi *urči*, Lezgi *šiw*, Archi *noİš*, Xin *pši* ‘horse’.
- Abx *la*, Circ *ħa*, Ub *wIa* (PWC **HI^wa*), cf. Avar dial. *h^we*, Axv *χ^we:*, Tindi *χ^wa:* (PAvar-Andi **χ^woɔi*), Gin, Xvar *ħ^we*, Inxo *ħI^wě*, Bezh *wo*, Gunz *wə* (PTsez **ħI^wěj*), Dargi *χIa*, dial. *χI^w:a*, Tsax *χ^wa*, Udi *χIa* vs. Chech, Ing, Bats *pħu*, Avar *hoj*, Andi *χ^woj*, Cham, Kar, Botl *χ^waj*, Bagv *h^waj*, Godob *χ^waji*, Tsez *ħI^waj*, Tab *χuj*, Aghul *ħuj*, Rut *χij*, Kryz *χ^war*, Bud *χor* ‘dog’.

9. Processes within late PWC: The formation of late PWC clusters (*CVCV > *CCV).

The comparison with EC shows that some currently monosyllabic WC roots were originally disyllabic and shortened due to the syncope of the (unstressed) vowel of the initial syllable, which gave rise to initial PWC clusters.

- (12) Avar *raq:u*, dial. *roqo* ‘ashes’, Lak *laχ* ‘ashes, dust’, Archi *laχ* ‘grain peelings’ vs. Circ *tχ^we* ‘to become grey (of hair)’, ‘grey (of horse)’, Kab *sa-tχ^we* ‘ashes’, Abx *q^wa* ‘ashes’, ‘grey (colour of ashes)’, Ub *q^wa* ‘ashes’ < PWC **tq^wa*, probably, from an earlier **dəq^wá*.

Chech, Ing *barh*, Bats *barλ*, Avar *miλ' :-*, Axv, Tindi, Kar, Botl, Bagv, Godob *biλ' :i-*, Tsez *biλ-*, Archi *meļe* 'eight' vs. Circ *p'λ'ə*, Abx *pš'ə*, Ub *p'λ'ə* 'four', probably, from an earlier **bəλ'ə* (*p' < *b* through regressive assimilation).

Chech, Ing *mott*, Avar *mac' :*, Andi, Axv, Botl *mic' :i*, Tindi, Godob *mic :i*, Kar *mac' :i*, Tsez, Gin, Xvar *mec*, Gunz, Inxo *mic*, Bezg *mic*, Lezgi, Aghul, Kryz, Bud *mez*, Rut, Tsax *miz*, Archi *mac*, Udi *muz*, Xin *mic'*, cf. Circ *bza*, Abx *a-bz*, Abaza *bzə*, Ub *bz'a* 'tongue', from an earlier stage **bəzá/ə*.

In rare cases, however, it seems that it was EC that created new clusters by a syncope of a vowel, whereas WC kept a *plene* form, cf. Andi *onš' :i*, Tindi, Kar, Botl, Godob *unš' :i*, Bagv *unš' :* 'earth' vs. PWC **nəš'wə* 'soil, clay.'¹⁶

In several instances the clusters in PWC appeared due to an unclear dental prefix (a fossilized grammatical class prefix?; cf. Abdokov 1983: 155), cf. the following numerals:

(13) Avar *k'i*, Dargi dial. *k'w'i*, Tab *q'Iu*, Archi *q'Iwe*, Xin *k'u*, cf. Circ *t'wə < *t'q'wə*, Abx *h'wə*, Ub *t'q'wə* 'two'.

Lak *χ:ul-*, Dargi *xu-*, Tab *xu-b*, Rut *xu-d*, Tsax *xo-llä*, Udi *qo*, cf. Kab *tx'ə*, Abx *χ'wə*, *ba*, Ub *š'xə* 'five'.

10. Late PWC root structure.

Once the restructuring of late PWC had occurred, the basic resulting root structures – C(C)V and CVCV – became stable and probably did not change much over a considerable period of time. In this sense, one can note Yakovlev's remark that the WC roots as "products of the amorphous stage, represent petrified, and a not developing further historical remainder" (Yakovlev & Ašxamaf 1941: 216). The only process that was still active in late WC was a strong tendency to further transformation of the remaining CVCV roots, under the influence of (final) dynamic stress, into CCV. This can be demonstrated by the comparison of some Circ, Ub and Abx roots:

(14)	CVCV	>	CCV
	Ad <i>max'wə</i> , Ub <i>məs'wə</i>	–	Abx <i>a-mš</i> 'day'
	Ad <i>məʒə</i> , Ub <i>məʒə</i>	–	Abx <i>a-mza</i> 'moon'
	Ad <i>məs'jə</i> , Ub <i>məs'wə</i>	–	Abx <i>a-mš'w</i> 'bear'
	Ub <i>γəba</i>	–	Abx <i>a-γba</i> 'ship'

The same process was active in Abx dialects, as seen from the following examples:

16. A similar solution is suggested in NCED 513; Abdokov (1983: 99) reconstructs PNC **našu-*.

- | | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|----------------|
| (15) | Tsab, Tsw Sadz <i>a-baga</i> | – | Bz, Abzh <i>a-bga</i> | ‘wolf’ |
| | Sadz <i>a-bana</i> | – | Bz, Abzh <i>a-bna</i> | ‘wood’ |
| | Sadz <i>a-š^waq[’](q[’])a</i> | – | Bz <i>a-š^wq[’]ʷə</i> , Abzh <i>a-š^wq[’](ʷ)ə</i> | ‘letter, book’ |
| | Sadz <i>á-ʒ^waʒ^wə-ra</i> | – | Bz, Abzh <i>á-ʒ^wʒ^wa-ra</i> | ‘to wash’ |

10.1. The preservation of old CV and CVCV roots.

The evidence from modern languages shows that a number of PWC roots were monosyllabic already in PNC; they include pronouns, deictics and some numerals:

- (16) Chech, Ing, Bats *so*, Rut *zi*, Tsax, Udi *zu*, Xin *zi*, cf. Abx *sa*, Circ *se*, Ub *sə-* ‘I’;
 Lak *wi*, Rut, Xin *wi*, Tsax *wu*, cf. Abx *wa*, Circ *we*, Ub *wə-* ‘thou’;
 Chech, Ing, Bats *šu*, Lak *zu*, Aghul *ču-n*, Tsax *šu*, Archi *ž^we-n*, Xin *zu-r*, cf. PWC
 **s^wa* ‘you (pl.)’;
 Chech *ča?*, Ing *caʃ*, Bats *ča*, Avar *co*, Tsez *sis*, Xvarsh *has*, Lak *ca*, Lezg, Tab,
 Rut, Tsax, Udi, Xin *sa*, cf. Abx **za*, Circ *zə*, Ub *za* ‘one’.

Besides, many nominal NC disyllabic roots of the structure CVCV were preserved in WC:

- (17) Tsez *q[’]aInq[’]u*, Gin *q[’]aq[’]u* ‘tubular bone’, Dargi *q[’]uq[’]a*, dial. *q[’]ʷaq[’]a* ‘knee’, cf.
 Abx *a-q[’]ʷaq[’]ʷa* ‘back’ (anat.), Abaza *q[’]ʷaq[’]ʷa* ‘hip-bone’.
 Andi *bore[’]:i*, Axv *boc[’]:o*, Tindi *boc[’]:u*, Kar *bore[’]:o*, Botl *pure[’]:u*, Godob *purc[’]:u*,
 Tsez *buci*, Gin *buce*, Xvar *buca*, Bezh, Gunz *boco*, cf. Ad *maze*, Ub *məʒa* ‘moon’.
 Avar *mik:i*, Dargi *lah(w)a*, (Xaid) *lihwa*, (Urax) *lawha*, (Muir, Kajtag) *lah^wa*, (Kub)
na/ex^wa, Rut *lirx^wa/oj* ‘pigeon’, cf. Abx *a-lah^wa* ‘rook, raven’, Ub *daχ^wa* ‘dove’.¹⁷
 Tsez *t[’]umi*, Xvar *t[’]ema*, Bezh *t[’]imo* ‘pigeon’, Dargi *t[’]uma* ‘owl’, cf. PWC > Ub *dəma*
 ‘hen’.
 Chech *deši* ‘gold’, Dargi *dubsi*, dial. *dabs:e* ‘(red) copper’, Tab *jiš^wu-r* ‘gold’, cf.
 Kab *dəše* ‘gold’.
 Andi, Axv, Tindi, Botl, Godob *miq[’]:i*, Cham, Bagv *miq[’]:i*, cf. Ub *məβ[’]a* ‘road, way’
 (Abx *a-mh^wa* < **məh^wa*).
 Chech, Ing *baza* ‘fir-tree’, Lak *wac[’]a* ‘forest’, Ad *mazə* ‘forest’, Ub *məʒə* ‘prickle,
 thorn’.
 Chech *daš*, oblique stem *doša-*, Avar *t[’]oxi*, Andi, Botl, Godob *t[’]uši*, Axv *t[’]oša*,
 Cham, Tindi *t[’]oha*, Kar *t[’]ošə*, cf. Ashx *t[’]asa* ‘lead (metal)’ (Abx *a-t[’]sa* < PAbx **t[’]asa*).

11. EC-WC correspondences in affixes.

17. This comparison differs from that proposed in NCED (pp. 748-749).

Although the analytical stage in the history of WC languages seems to be plausible, PWC might have preserved at least partially some old grammatical morphemes, which can be judged from the fact that WC and EC do in fact share, beside lexical roots, also a number of affixal morphemes. Of the comparable WC-EC correspondences in affixes the following ones can be mentioned:¹⁸

(18)

PWC	PEC	
* <i>mə</i>	* <i>ma</i>	prohibitive/negative particle
* <i>čə-</i> (PAbx)	* <i>č[ũ]</i>	reflexive pronoun/affix
* <i>-gʲə</i>	* <i>-gi</i> / * <i>-</i>	enclitic particle 'and' ¹⁹
	<i>gu</i>	
* <i>-ra</i> (PCirc)	* <i>-ra</i>	enclitic particle 'and'
* <i>-ba</i> , * <i>bə-</i> , * <i>ba</i> (PAbx)	* <i>b-</i>	suffixal marker of numerals for non-human referents; prefix of 2 nd person (fem.), personal pronoun 'thou' (fem.) (PAbx); prefixal marker denoting animals and some inanimate things or phenomena (PEC)
* <i>-ara</i> (PAbx)	* <i>-ar</i>	plural suffix
* <i>-la</i>	* <i>-l(a)</i>	durative suffix
* <i>-n</i> (PAbx)	* <i>-na</i>	past tense suffix
* <i>-m</i> (PCirc)	* <i>-m</i>	ergative/oblique (PCirc) or oblique case (PEC) suffix
* <i>-da</i>	* <i>-d(a)</i>	optative suffix
* <i>-rə</i> (PCirc)	* <i>-r(a)</i>	participial or converbial suffix
* <i>-gʷa</i>	* <i>-gwa</i>	adverbial suffix
* <i>cʲə-</i> (PAbx)	* <i>-cᵢ</i>	comitative affix
* <i>-na/ə</i>	* <i>-n</i>	locative suffix (PWC), ²⁰ genitive suffix (PEC)
* <i>-nə</i> (PAbx, Ub)	* <i>-na</i>	converbial/adverbial suffix ²¹
* <i>-sa</i>	* <i>-sᵉ</i>	adverbial/participial (PWC), instrumental (PEC) suffix
* <i>-da</i>	* <i>-di</i>	directional/locative particle (PWC), locative suffix (PEC).

18. Here the PWC reconstructions are mine, PEC forms are from Trubetzkoy (1930), Abdokov (1983; 1981), NCED, Alekseev (1988; 2003), and Starostin (2007).

19. Cf. Abx *a-gazet'-kʷa-gʲə a-žurnal-kʷa-gʲə*, Avar *gazet-al-gi žurnal-al-gi* 'newspapers and magazines'. Noteworthy is also a parallelism in the formation of negative polarity pronouns, cf. Avar *co-ni-gi*, Abx *ak'-gʲə*, Kab *zəjəč'* < *zə-jə+kʷi* < **zə-jə+gʲə* 'nothing', lit. 'one-and'; the same model is typical for other EC languages, cf. Lezgi *sad-ni*, Aghul *sad-ra* 'nobody', lit. 'one-and'.

20. Probably connected with verbal root **na/ə* 'be/remain somewhere' (cf. Chirikba 1996: 368).

21. Cf. Aghul *xuru-na* 'having read', Abx *s-a-pχ'a-nə* 'it-I-having read', Rut *hagu-j-nə* 'having seen', Abx *jə-ba-nə* 'it-having seen', Archi *abu-na* 'having done', Abx *jə-q'ac'a-nə* 'it-having done', Rut *hiagu-j-nə* 'having seen', Abx *d-ba-nə* 'him/her-having seen', Bud *sihi-ni* 'being', Abx *jə-q'a-nə* 'it- being', etc. In the adverbial function: Rut *temiz-na*, Abx *jə-ck'a-nə* 'cleanly', Rut *jəxa-na*, Abx *jə-bzəja-nə* 'well', etc. Cf. also a similar use of this suffix in temporal terms: Tab *čw-nu*, Aghul *cul-a-na*, Abx *tagala-n* 'in the autumn', Archi *iqh-na* 'in the day-time', Abx *a-č-nə* 'on that day' (EC forms are from Alekseev 1985: 101-102).

In a number of these cases we can probably speak of originally separate particles (as in the case of coordinating conjunctions), floating enclitics (as the negation marker, which even synchronously can function in WC as a prefix, infix or suffix) or even independent words, like pronouns (cf. the reflexive affix, the marker of ergative/oblique case),²² which only later became incorporated in both branches into nominal or verbal paradigms.

The fact that EC orientational case suffixes, which express localization, correspond etymologically to WC orientational preverbs, indicates the derivation of both from independent adverbials or similar classes of independent words (cf. Abdokov 1983a; 1983: 75; Alekseev 1988: 174). However, it can also be that some of these cognates could have been affixal morphemes already in NC and thus inherited by both branches.

Among few genuinely inflectional affixes common to EC and WC were perhaps old class and plurality markers²³ (see above; cf. also NCED 85; Abdokov 1981: 62-3, 66-76). Old class markers are presumably traceable in Abx numerals (Abx *-ba* suf. of non-human class in numerals, as in *j^w-ba* ‘two’, *pšⁱ-ba* ‘four’, etc.) and probably in the human feminine pronoun *ba* ‘thou’.

12. The late PWC’s dominant root structures.

The counting of various PWC root structures as presented in NCED reveals the following ratio:

(19)	VCV	-	10
	CV	-	289
	CCV	-	29
	CVCV	-	289
	all PWC roots	-	684

This shows that:

(a) PWC had relatively few roots with initial clusters and even fewer roots with initial vowels.

(b) The number of roots of the CVCV structure is in essence equal to that of the CV structure, which is rather unexpected, given the traditional view of the predominance of monosyllabic roots in WC. It was noted already by Trubetzkoy (1987: 281) that some WC correspondences are disyllabic (esp. many nouns), and this disyllabic structure should be reconstructed for the NC epoch.

22. M. Kumakhov (1984: 84) derives the Circ ergative suffix *-m* from the independent deictic pronoun *mə*.

23. The fact that WC languages lack common plural markers, and probably only Abx preserves the old NC pluralizer, while Ub lacks any nominal pluralizers, might indicate that the process of the loss of old inflection was continued even after the split of CWC into individual languages.

The early PWC had thus a statistically greater number of disyllabic than monosyllabic roots, which means that Yakovlev's theory about the original monosyllabicity of WC roots should be abandoned (cf. Trubetzkoy 1987: 281-282; Abdokov 1981: 30). On the other hand, a great number of disyllabic roots in PWC must dispel usual objections to the possibility of establishing sound correspondences between WC and EC cognates because of the perceived monosyllabic character of the former.

13. Factors triggering the evolution of WC.

The triggering factors for the radical restructuring of a language's structure can be, on the one hand, the development of certain features inherently present in the system of the maternal proto-language in the conditions of geographic isolation from sister languages and, importantly, intensive contact with neighbouring allo-structural idioms.

One of the internal driving forces for the phonetic changes in PWC was, according to Abdokov (1981), a tendency to rising sonority (or the law of open syllable), which meant that final consonants were weakened and dropped and the syllable structure became uniformly (CV)CV. This led to a near-complete loss of old (inflectional and derivational) morphology, which was mainly suffixal (cf. Marr's early ideas presented above). Besides, it led to the appearance of a great number of monosyllabic homophonous roots/words. These latter were probably distinguished by means of tones (cf. Dybo 1989 on the WC tonal hypothesis), risen in place of the lost consonants (especially laryngeals and resonants). The mono- or disyllabic root became equal to a morpheme and a word.

In the condition of the fading system of nominal classes (which however managed to survive in Abx, cf. Abdokov 1981: 54-65), the main means to express syntactic relations between isolated and inflection-less words had to become fixed word order (see Chirikba 2010). It is possible that ablaut too played a role, serving to distinguish grammatical forms.

The law of rising sonority helps to explain rather well the mechanism of the revolutionary "perestroika" in the word structure, as well as profound changes caused by this process in the phonemic, prosodic, morphological and syntactic systems of the early WC proto-language. It is more difficult to say, however, what triggered this process in the first place – the internal development of some of the tendencies already inherent in the proto-language or, more probably, language contact, or perhaps the combination of both.

As noted by R. Beekes (1995: 71), "languages which are isolated, and depend for change on internal factors only, undergo little change. On the other hand, languages may undergo rapid change within a relatively short span of time, especially in times of social and political upheaval. It appears therefore that the influence of other language systems remains the single most important factor underlying sound change".

The intensive language contact as the main factor responsible for the fundamental restructuring of the early PWC dialect was suggested by Trubetzkoy (1930: 111), who suggested that such deep structural deviations of WC from EC, as, for instance, the atrophy of the WC vocalic system, could be understood only by supposing a language mixture. According to him, “WC could have thus emerged through a mixture of an idiom very close to PEC with some other language”. Proceeding from this, we can probably speak in terms of creolization of the early PWC dialect, which could happen as a result of migration, either of the speakers of the early PWC dialect to a new habitat which had an older population, with which they then mixed, or, vice versa, a migration of speakers of another language who moved to the territory occupied by the bearers of early PWC.²⁴

In any event, it is quite obvious that these developments in PWC took place in the condition of its geographical isolation from speakers of the sister-PEC dialect(s), which in the main remained quite conservative and unresponsive to external pressure. This in turn may indicate that EC was developing in a habitat geographically more isolated from external influences. Early PWC was, as it seems, on the contrary, exposed to intensive language contact, which resulted in the above-mentioned significant re-structuring.

However, after it eventually evolved, having acquired nearly all the features of its modern make-up, late PWC (= CWC) remained stable over a considerable period of time. This might indicate that late CWC was not exposed to significant external linguistic influences or contacts, and the only factor in its slowed evolution was contact between its separated dialects.

14. Conclusions.

The comparison of PWC with EC languages suggests that late PWC underwent a fundamental restructuring of its phonological, morphological and syntactic systems. Everything points to the fact that after the WC separated from common North Caucasian and before it acquired the guise which is preserved by its modern continuations, it was transformed into a different system, which was analytical, with elementary inflection and with main grammatical roles and relations being expressed by lexical means, word order and probably also by apophony and tones. The subsequent changes led to the development of compounding and incorporation.

The evolution of early PWC into late PWC included the following processes. In phonology: the weakening of the role of tones and the appearance of a dynamic stress system; the appearance of consonant clusters due to the syncope of vowels in unstressed syllables; the dominant models of root structure becoming VC, C(C)V, and CVCV. In morphology, the transformation process led to the increased role of compounding in derivation; the development of incorporation and agglutination; the incorporation of previously independent pre-verbal personal and deictic pronouns, as well as local, temporal, directional and orientational adverbs into the verbal forms; the increased role of

24. In the event of the migration of speakers of PWC to the Caucasus, their most probable original *Urheimat* can be placed in north-central or north-eastern Asia Minor.

prefixation; the development of polysyntheticism. In syntax, it resulted in the weakening of the role of word order.

The main evolutionary shift from the NC dialect to the modern WC languages was thus, first, from agglutinative to the analytical language-type (due to a near complete loss of inflection), and then from the analytical to the agglutinative (poly)synthetic type.

Cross-linguistically, there are examples of similar diachronic changes in morphological type. Cf., for instance, the evolution of English from inflectional to analytical structure, or Chinese from agglutinative to the isolating type. However, an even more striking parallel to the evolution of WC is provided by French.²⁵ In the latter case we do know sufficiently well the stages which led the fully inflectional synthetic Latin, via Vulgar Latin, first to the analytical structure of early modern French and finally to the arguably polysynthetic-like structure of present-day colloquial (non-standard) French. Indeed, modern spoken French demonstrates how an analytical language can become polysynthetic by means of incorporation or fusion of originally discrete pronouns and grammatical words.

Let us take as an example the following phrase: *que je ne t'aime pas* 'the fact that I don't love you', pronounced in colloquial speech as [kəʃtɛ'mpa].²⁶ If French was an unwritten language and a field linguist would purport to describe it, one of the predictable outcomes would be its description in terms of a polysynthetic language rather than a basically analytical language with some elementary nominal inflection, as we know it from standard textbooks. In case of the cited phrase, we would in fact have a typically WC-type polysynthetic verbal form, containing two agreement (subject and object) markers, as well as subordinating and negation markers:

- (20) *kə-ʃ-t-ɛm-pa*
SUB-1SG-2SG-love:PRES-NEG

- (21) cf. Abx: *bzəja bə-ʃə-zə-m-ba-wa*
well 2SG:FEM-SUB-1SG-NEG-see-PRES:DYN:NFIN
'The fact that I don't love you'.

From the material presented in this paper, a natural conclusion should be drawn that, in principle, there is no direct correlation between the language type/structure and its genetic affiliation. It is true, that related languages tend to maintain similar morphological structures, due to the retention of features inherited from the common ancestor; cf. for instance Baltic or Slavic languages, which preserve important features of the maternal IE system. Some other languages, on the contrary, show striking deviations from the older system.

25. The analogy between the polysynthetic structure of WC and of modern colloquial French was suggested to me by Dr. Rieks Smeets (p.c.); see also a lively debate on this topic on the fora on the internet.

26. The comment on the actual pronunciation of this phrase was provided to me by Dr. René Lacroix.

In one or another way, Proto-West Caucasian too changed its original structural type and developed into a system, which significantly deviates from that of the related EC languages, and which for some may blur the genetic relationship between these two NC branches. However, this relationship can be satisfactorily proven by the application of standard procedures of comparative-historical linguistics, which was so eloquently put forward in the first decades of the 20th century by Nikolay Trubetzkoy and which was definitively demonstrated by modern historical linguists, Sergei Starostin, Sergei Nikolayev and Auez Abdokov.

Abbreviations:

Abx	Abkhaz	NC	North Caucasian
Abzh	Abzhywa dialect of Abx	NEG	Negative
Ad	Adyghe	NFIN	Non-Finite
AN	Akademija Nauk (Academy of Sciences)	PAbx	Proto-Abkhaz
Ashx	Ashkharywa Abaza	PAvar-Andi	Proto-Avar-Andi
Axv	Akhvakh	PCirc	Proto-Circassian
Bagv	Bagvala	PDargi	Proto-Dargi
Bezh	Bezhta	PEC	Proto-East Caucasian
Botl	Botlikh	PIE	Proto-Indo-European
Bud	Budukh	PLezgi	Proto-Lezgi
Bz	Bzyp dialect of Abx	PNax	Proto-Nakh
Cham	Chamala	PNC	Proto-North Caucasian
Chech	Chechen	PTsez	Proto-Tsez
Circ	Circassian	PWC	Proto-West Caucasian
CWC	Common West Caucasian	PRES	Present
DYN	Dynamic	PUB	Proto-Ubykh
EC	East Caucasian	Rut	Rutul
FEM	Feminine	SG	Singular
Gin	Ginukh	SUB	Subordinative
Godob	Godoberi	Tab	Tabasaran
Gunz	Gunzib	Tsab	Tsabal dialect of Abx
IE	Indo-European	Tsax	Tsakhur
Ing	Ingush	Tsw	Tswydzhi dialect of Sadz
Inxo	Inxokvari	Ub	Ubykh
Kab	Kabardian	WC	West Caucasian
Kar	Karata	Xaid	Xaidak dialect of Dargi
Kart	Kartvelian	Xin	Xinalug
Kub	Kubachi dialect of Dargi	Xvar	Khvarshi

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Comments on V.A. Chirikba's "From North to North West: How North-West Caucasian Evolved from North Caucasian"

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The author of the present contribution, a native speaker of Abkhaz, who unites in one person the approaches of both the Moscow and Leiden accentological and comparative linguistic schools, represents one of the most competent linguists in the field of the Northwest Caucasian languages, not only at the present time, but from the beginning of scientific research on these languages two centuries ago. His new article is extraordinarily valuable, since he introduces us to the research on comparative phonology and morphology of the Northwest Caucasian languages in the context of history of this discipline, contrary to almost all other authors, who have only written for insiders. No less valuable are Chirikba's observations concerning typological characteristics of the Northwest Caucasian languages in comparison with the Northeast Caucasian languages, which are parallel to the development of French from Latin to its colloquial spoken form.

I have no critical remarks on Chirikba's article. I would only expect that he also include among the renowned specialists Georgij A. Klimov (1928–1997), who had written several studies in which he worked with material of the Northwest Caucasian languages:

Klimov, G.A. Abxazsko-adygskie étimologii I (iskonnij fond). *Étimologija* 1965 [1967], 296-306.

Klimov, G.A. Abxazsko-adygskie étimologii II (zaimstvovannij fond). *Étimologija* 1966 [1968], 289-295.

Klimov, G.A. Abxazsko-adygsko-kartvel'skie leksičeskie paralleli. *Étimologija* 1967 [1969], 286-295.

Klimov, G.A. Kavkazskie étimologii, 1-9. *Étimologija* 1968 [1971], 223-230.

Klimov, G.A. *Einführung in die kaukasische Sprachwissenschaft*. Hamburg: Buske 1994.

Klimov, G.A. & M.Š. Xalilov. *Slovar' kavkazskix jazykov. Sopostavlenie osnovnoj leksiki*. Moskva: vostočnaja literatura 2003.

Remarks on V. A. Chirikba, “From North to North West: How North-West Caucasian Evolved from North Caucasian”

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Anyone working on the languages of the Caucasus must wonder at some point whether the North West languages (henceforth WC, following Chirikba) and the North East ones (henceforth EC) are distantly related. Dr. Chirikba’s article is a welcome addition to this issue. Dr. Chirikba notes many typological parallels, parallels that the two groups share to the exclusion of the South Caucasian or Kartvelian family (Georgian, Laz, Mingrelian, Svan). He also gives a thorough history of the scholarship devoted to this issue. In this aspect, he has made a thorough and lucid contribution.

Still, there are some matters in this work with which I disagree. I shall first present three major criticisms, and conclude with some minor points.

First, in the course of his exposition he addresses one of the manifest differences: the case system in EC is reputed to be one of the richest known, while that of WC is meager, two (perhaps four) for Circassian, one (perhaps two) in Ubykh, and none at all in Abkhaz (including Abaza). By some accounts the EC language Tabasaran has over fifty cases. In fact, however, the Daghestani branch of EC achieves such richness by having four or five basic cases: absolutive (unmarked), ergative, genitive, and dative. The rest of the so-called cases are built upon the ergative, through a combination of location suffixes, say for example, ‘top’ and with the possible addition of yet more kinetic suffixes, ‘to the top, away from the top, across the top, at the top,’ etc. (See Comrie and Polinsky 1998). The Vai Nakh languages fail to do this, but instead have regular cases. Ingush, for example has eight cases (Nichols, 2011). Chirikba holds to the original view that EC had enormous case systems and that this presents a typological divide between WC and EC. As a unifying feature, he notes that both groups have ergative case systems when they do have case. Even Abkhaz, which lacks case, has morphological ergativity.

It is quite plausible that given enough time and differences of setting and outside influence, an originally unified Proto-North Caucasian (henceforth PNC) might well evolve into two distinct branches with differing case typologies, but this is nowhere near the historical difficulty that Chirikba assumes it to be. Certainly the central Caucasus is now occupied by the Iranian language, Ossetic and has been for at least the past two millennia, but it is not clear if this is enough time for the divergence to take place. I suspect not. Chirikba is implying that the WC group came under some external influence from which the EC group was shielded. I have argued (Colarusso 1997; 2005; see also

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Bomhard 2015) that the most plausible neighbor to WC at an early period was Proto-Indo-European (PIE), in fact, that (PIE) was a branch of a phylum from which WC also evolved, perhaps including even more remotely EC as well. Chirikba fails to make any suggestions as to what this outside influence on WC might be. If PIE was close, then its elaborate case system (eight by most accounts) would not have been the undoing of a system that might be assumed for a PNC, something like the Vai Nakh systems. In sum, however, the EC case system does not present a substantial typological contrast to that of WC, so this is not a real problem for the historian.

Second, Chirikba then turns to the typologically unusual vowel system of WC, the vertical system, quite distinct from the entirely normal systems found in EC languages (though /o/ is rare). He alludes to my work suggesting that part of the consonantal coloring arose from old class prefixes (Colarusso 1994). Despite the acceptance that the consonantal coloring of WC arose from vowel coloring, with vowels of a typologically normal range, Chirikba then argues for three sorts of colored consonants in WC, rounded, palatalized, and rounded-palatalized, that is ones with w-coloring, y-coloring, and ü-coloring.

While this last will be used to tie a few WC forms into cognate sets with EC ones, its real origin lies in an adherence to the Neo-Grammarian stricture of regularity among sound correspondences, an adherence that Chirikba used in his excellent doctoral thesis (1996), but one which leads to an unrealistic number of proto-phonemes in the mother language, more than 150. Ü-coloring arises when comparing Circassian and Abkhazian, on the one hand, with Ubykh on the other. Where the first two show rounded consonants, Ubykh will typically show a palatalized one, as in (1).

(1) Source for ü-coloring hypothesis

Circ(assian) /-k'°e-/ 'to go'

Ub(ykh) /-k'ye-/ *id.*

Unfortunately, coloring among these languages is not so simple. One can find matches where Circassian shows palatalization and Ubykh shows rounding, (2):

(2) Opposite coloring from (1)

Circ (Kabardian) /-wek'ye-/ 'to kill'

Ub(ykh) /-k'°-/ *id.*

Further, one must look for all possible matches of rounding and palatalization, along with forms that lack any coloring, not only between languages but even within the same

language. Note the forms in (3) within the same language (Colarusso, 1994, pp. 9-10, and various forms throughout, often between languages).

(3) Other coloring correlations

a. $\emptyset \sim w$

Circ. /ħarze/ 'to soar, hover'

(Kabardian) /x̣°arze/ *id.*, $\leq *x̣°arze/ \leq */harza/ \leq */w-ħarza/$

Ub /-t-/ 'to be, exist (indefinite present or adverbial sense)

/-t°-/ 'to be, exist'

b. $\emptyset \sim y$

Circ /šx̣æde/ 'to chide some one'

/šỵx̣æ/ 'to laugh at some one' $\leq */yæ-šx̣æ/$ 'at-laugh'

Ub /čædæ/ 'donkey'

/čỵæ/ 'horse'

/čỵa/ 'horseman'

Ub /č'a-fa/ mouth-nose, 'front'

/č'ỵa/ 'mouth'

Then there are forms that cannot be explained except by assuming a morphological leveling among forms that must have been productive in the mother language, (4).

(4) Forms reflecting $*w-X \sim *y-X$ and $*y-X \sim *w-X$,

a. $*w-X \sim *y-X$

Circ /-w-e-/ hit-at, 'to hit'

Ub /-ya-/ 'to hit'

b. $*y-X \sim *w-X$

Circ /-y-e-/ direction-to, at

Ub /-wa-/ 'to, in a mass' (preverb)

c. $*X-y \sim *w-X$

Circ /-y/ 'big' (suffixal adjective)

Ub /wá/ 'big, long'

The forms in (4) are best explained as surviving affixes once attached to roots that were easily lost or “absorbed.” For (4b) Abkhaz suggests an answer in that the preverb for ‘to, in a mass, at, toward’ is /-a-/, yielding a Proto-WC form */w-a-/ or */y-a-/ with varying grammatical class markers. The odd intransitivity of the forms in (4a), glossed literally as “hit to someone, something”, might be seen as an appropriation of the original */-a-/ preverb to function as a verbal root. The forms in (4c) require further investigation.

Disposing of ü-coloring and attributing the alternation of coloring to separate morphemes has two large advantages. First it renders Proto-WC with a sensible number of proto-phonemes, around 50 or so, with a system of consonants and vowels that looks very much like an EC language. Second, it ties the morphology of WC into that of EC, specifically it gives a grammatical class system to both, a significant present difference that Chirikba really does not bridge (although he hints at the possibility in seeking the origin of an inexplicable dental stop (p. 16, and examples in [13]). EC has grammatical class systems – WC lacks this, but the ü-coloring of Chirikba hides the fact that such class markers were leveled and left “irregularities” in sound correspondences. In fact, apart from the theoretical schematic correspondences in (6) the removal of ü-coloring from the paradigm has little real impact, being invoked in (9) and (10) only.

Third, with case issues and coloring issues dispelled the only real typological chasm that must be crossed is that of verbal inflection. WC has a rich polypersonal verb while EC has only inflection of the subject, and for some languages such as Avar or Archi, not even person is inflected, only the grammatical class of the subject. Chirikba does address this problem in his conclusion section, pp. 21-23, where he summarizes the shift of WC from the EC model, with the latter assumed to be closer to the NC mother form, as one of “agglutinative to the analytical ... and then from the analytical to the agglutinative (polysynthetic) type” (p. 22). French is held up as a good example of the last shift. For this explanation to work one must assume a string of pronouns and other elements as preverbal elements that eventually undergo cliticization to the verb, though it is possible to show that these verbal indices are not clitics in WC now, only benefactive forms being such (Colarusso, 2006, p. 30). In fact Tom Markey and I have argued (forthcoming) that the polypersonal verb of WC may have arisen from the clitic chain in sentential second position, the so-called Wackernagel position, which persisted as such among some of the Indo-European languages (distantly related to WC), but which became appended to the verb as phrasal head in WC.

I might even suggest here that some of the personal pronouns and their clitic verbal “index” variants bear a strong resemblance to some of the class markers of EC: WC /w-/ ‘you’ ~ EC /w-/ masculine, WC /y-/ ‘third person’ ~ EC /y-/ feminine, Abkhaz /-r-/ ‘third.plural’ ~ EC /r-/ plural. One might conceive of some shifting and reinterpretation of old class markers so as to function in a more traditional inflectional manner.

The strongest portion of Chirikba's article is the array of putative cognate sets that he has put forward. As is often the case the EC forms are listed by language without a Proto-EC form being postulated, except at the level of Proto-Avar-Andi, a closely related sub-group within EC. Nevertheless, many of these sets are intriguing, and a few are convincing. Some, such as the one for 'dog,' (11), are unconvincing, where the WC forms in Ubykh and Abkhaz are likely to be loans from PIE 'wolf', **wlkʷ-os* ≥ Proto-WC **/wla-/* ≥ Ub */wa/*, Abx */la/*, while Circassian */he/* originally meant 'wolf' and is the only form that may be cognate with the EC forms. The comparisons for the numerals (13), the pronouns (16), and a variety of words in (17) fare better, and that of the suffixes, both taken to the proto-language level, (18), is excellent.

There is the occasional odd error. For example, the Circassian (noted as 'Ad' for 'Adyghey') for 'bear' in (14) is written as *mās^ja* when in fact the fricative is retroflexed, */māše/*. The same palatalized notation is used throughout for the Ubykh apical alveolar series, so that instead of *s^j*, *z^j*, etc., one would be better to read */š/*, */ž/*, etc. This are usually cognate with the Circassian laminal alveo-palatal series, */ś/*, */ź/*.

Then there is an oversight in (2), where the Abkhazian correlates of the Circassian lateral fricatives are presented as laminal palato-alveolars */š^j/*, */ž^j/*, (like <sh> in *shed*). It is not this simple, however. The Abkhazian cognate for Circassian */pʰ-/* 'to look', is */pš-/*, with a retroflexed palate-alveolar (like <sh> in *shred*). This suggests that the development from lateral to laminal may have passed through a retroflexed stage and this suggests other possible matches with EC forms that would be overlooked if the laminal forms in Abkhazian were the only ones noted.

In a similar vein the Proto-WC inventory in (8) lacks crucial features: a voiceless unaspirated series, and an alveo-palatal series. This issue of inventory leads to the 81st consonant of Ubykh. I have argued (Colarusso 1992) that the Ubykh system had an 81st consonant, a labialized voiceless palatal fricative, which corresponds to the same in East Circassian, both */x̣°/*, (West Circasian */f/*). I confirmed this with my "Milk Sister," Meral Çare, a fluent Ubykh speaker, in April of 2014 when we last met in Istanbul. Throughout the present paper, say, for example, in (14) 'day', this form is written as Vogt (1963) did it, as <s^w>, which is a distinct phoneme, */s°/*, found in the second person plural pronoun, (16), corresponding with Circ */ś°/* and (Bzyb) Abx */š°/*. This is a distinct correspondence set from that in (14) for 'day', Circ */x̣°/*, Ub */x̣°/*, Abx */ṣ̌/*.

The elimination of the Ubykh labialized alveolar fricative in the set for 'day' weakens the plausibility of the Abkhazian form with its retroflexed palate-alveolar. In fact it is more plausible now to EC cognates for 'day' in forms with **/xo/*. The forms for 'you.plural' (16), then point to a possible alveo-palatal series for Proto-EC, a series which yielded either an alveolar (Lakk and Khinalug) or a palato-alveolar (Vai Nakh, Aghul, Tsakhur, and Archi), but otherwise is absent from modern EC languages. This would bring the phonemic systems of PWC and PEC closer in a significant way. The example

of ‘day’ shows that the correct details can have far reaching consequences and are vital for the accurate reconstruction of Proto-(N)WC and even PNC.

To add just a few minor points: In (15) in the set for ‘book’ one may add the Ubykh /š°əq’á/ *id.*, a close match to the Abkhazian forms. It is probably a cognate rather than a loan because of the /-a/. The exact match for the Abkhazian final vowel belongs to a verb meaning ‘to honor’, with a separable prefix, /š°a-q’-’/ (Vogt, 1963, p.181). In (17) in the word for ‘road’ one may add Circassian /γ°ə/, *id.*, without the /mə-/ prefix.

The overall point here is that any work in this maelstrom of languages has to be done with the utmost care and attention to detail. Proto-forms at every level, especially in the complex domain of EC languages, have to be reconstructed and justified, and cognates sorted out from loans (no mean task in a set of languages in long contact with one another). The effort to establish cognates within WC itself is difficult in the extreme. Once an inventory of solid cognates has been established for both WC and EC then typological shifts can be hypothesized and evaluated with greater confidence.

Despite my criticisms Chirikba’s article is not only a useful synopsis of work on this problem, but an advance in this topic. With his effort Chirikba has convinced me, a skeptic for decades, that links across the North Caucasus are worthy of time and effort, and in fact may bear unexpected fruit. With Proto-Indo-European possibly a member of the Caucasian linguistic world (Colarusso 1997), the issue of Caucasian linguistic relationships takes on more than a mere local importance.

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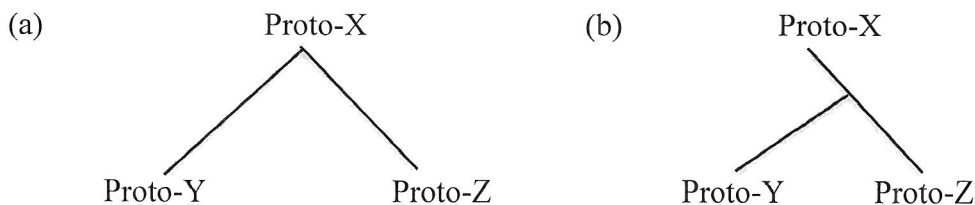
Comments on V.A. Chirikba's paper
“From North to North West: How North-West Caucasian
Evolved from North Caucasian”

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As has been summarized by the author of the paper under discussion, the question of a genetic relationship between West Caucasian and East Caucasian (or: Nakho-Daghestanian) has long been a prominent topic in Caucasian linguistics. Chirikba's paper tries to outline some of the pathways that led to the formation of West Caucasian, starting from the assumption that the world of present-day West Caucasian languages ultimately derives from a so-called North Caucasian dialect that would have also been the source for the development of East Caucasian. Most importantly, the author claims that the offsprings of East Caucasian reflect the original linguistic patterns of North Caucasian more closely, whereas the assumed North Caucasian dialect resulting in West Caucasian underwent dramatic changes that affected phonology and phonotactics as well as morphosyntax.

From a general point of view, such processes that massively restructure a given language system are sufficiently well documented. In this context, the author mentions the “stages which led the fully inflectional synthetic Latin, via Vulgar Latin, first to the analytical structure of early modern French and finally to the arguably polysynthetic-like structure of present-day colloquial (non-standard) French” (p. 28). Still, even though individual constructions of French (see *e.g.* Lambrecht 1981, Auger 1993) resemble those of West Caucasian, there are marked differences that question the relevance of French in this context. For other polysynthetic, predominantly prefixing languages such as the Na-Dené languages, however, that come closer to the West Caucasian type than French does, it is more difficult to describe the original typological architecture: In fact, we face the same problem as given for West Caucasian, namely that by family-internal reconstruction, we arrive at more or less the same basic patterns as in the modern languages. In order to search for the processes that had conditioned the emergence of predominantly prefixing polysynthesis, we have either to refer to internal reconstruction (by itself not considered by the author of the paper under discussion) or to languages said to be externally related to the languages at issue. For a language family such as Na-Dené, little is known, however, about possible external relatives (the consideration of Yeniseian as proposed *e.g.* by Vajda (2010) does not help in this respect). For West Caucasian, reference towards East Caucasian is quite common. In this sense, the East Caucasian languages would have preserved the original morphosyntactic and (in parts) phonotactic

architecture, just as the “Baltic or Slavic languages, which preserve important features of the maternal IE system” (p. 23). Hence, whereas we can safely describe earlier stages of French that can serve to set up scenarios of language change leading to the present state of (spoken) French, one has to postulate from the very beginnings a relationship between East and West Caucasian in order to reconstruct a forerunner of West Caucasian that played the same role as Latin in the formation of Old French or as Middle French in the formation of Modern French. By itself, this procedure is not uncommon. For instance, individual branches of Indo-European form an important starting point for reconstructing the shape of the proto-languages of given subgroups within Indo-European. Still, this method calls for caution. Consider the following two cladograms:



Version (a) starts from a proto-language X that developed into two varieties (Y and Z) each of them marked for a relevant set of innovations. Version (b) starts from the same proto-language that, however, stayed intact for some time, except for one variety (Y) that was highly innovative. Now, if one starts from Proto-Y — itself reconstructed on the basis of the languages included in Y — two different perspectives can be taken: According to (a), Proto-Z cannot serve as a safe starting point because Proto-Z is characterized by a relevant set of innovations different from those in Proto-Y. In other words: Proto-Z may help to retrieve possible conservative features of Proto-X in case these are present in Proto-Y, too. Or, one applies the method of internal reconstruction to both Proto-Y and Proto-Z and compares the results, assuming that resulting patterns shared by both Proto-Y and Proto-Z are part of Proto-X. Version (b) would mean that in order to reconstruct Proto-Y, one sets Proto-Z (itself the conservative continuation of Proto-X) as the default for Proto-X and explains the features of Proto-Y as innovations. The author of the paper under discussion clearly takes the second option asking: “[H]ow WC could arrive in some important aspects to a strikingly different system from the one represented by EC, which latter, as some specialists maintain, continue the main parameters of the NC proto-language?” (p. 2). The footnote included in this quote refers to Nikolayev & Starostin (1994: 39) who claim that the Proto-WC phonological system “can be almost completely deduced” from Proto-EC. Hence, Chirikba’s argumentation strongly depends from the quality of the *North Caucasian Etymological Dictionary* (Nikolayev & Starostin 1994) that serves as the main data base for the analyses presented in his article. Unfortunately, Chirikba does so in a rather uncritical way. He emphatically states that “[t]he overall weight of revealed lexical material common to both NC

branches, and, importantly, systemic phonemic correspondences established on the basis of lexical comparisons, despite the fact that many details in the reconstruction of individual NC groups and the parental NC proto-language still have to be worked out, render the validity of the North Caucasian linguistic family beyond any reasonable doubt” (p. 6). He discredits possible objections by saying: “Typically, the critique comes from authors who are not themselves historical linguists, or who work exclusively on one branch of the NC family, being unfamiliar with the other, or even from those who work on the unrelated Kartvelian family” (p. 6). I do not want to comment on this not very scholarly formulation (see Nichols 1997, Schulze 1997 for reviews of the NCED), but want to add that such a negative statement should have at least been supplemented by evidence that would prove it. In fact, it is quite remarkable that the paper rarely considers alternative explanations or possible problems. Let us take three examples: on p. 18, the author mentions the following two sets of correspondences (note that I keep the format given in the original when quoting examples given by the author):

- (1) Chech *deši* ‘gold’, Dargi *dubsi*, dial. *dabs:e* ‘(red) copper’, Tab *jiš^wu-r* ‘gold’, cf. Kab *dəše* ‘gold’.

However, we have to exclude at least (in my writing) Tabasaran *yiš^w-ur* (sic!) that is a variant of *yif* ‘copper’ (marked by collective plural), also present in Aghul. To my knowledge there is not secure sound law in Tabasaran or Aghul that would relate Chechen or Dargi *d-* to *y-*. Given that fact that in many East Caucasian languages, terms for ‘gold’ are borrowings (cf. Schulze 2013) we should assume that Chechen *deši* is a borrowing, too, namely from Kabardian *dəše* ‘gold’.

- (2) Avar *mik:i*, Dargi *lah(w)a*, (Xaid) *lihwa*, (Urax) *lawha*, (Muir, Kajtag) *lah^wa*, (Kub) *na/ex^wa*, Rut *lirx^wa/oj*, cf. Abx *a-lah^wa* ‘rook, raven’, Ub *daχ^wa* ‘dove’.

Gippert (2017) has convincingly argued that Rutul *lirx^w-* is related to Aghul and Tabasaran *luf*, Lezgi *lif*, Kryts *ləf*, and Caucasian Albanian *luf-* ‘dove’. Starting from Old Armenian *alawni* ‘dove’ he proposes a “pre-form like **(ə)ləv-* for Proto-Armenian as the input for a Proto-Lezgian borrowing in the form **ləf* ” going back to Indo-European **h₂lh₃b^h(-ih₁-njo)-*. It is rather likely that once **(ə)ləv-* (> **lə(x)w* ~ **ləf*) had been introduced in the Lezgian languages it also spread into Dargi (the inclusion of Avar *mik:i* seems extremely improbable). In this sense, we have to deal with a later loan into the southern languages of East Caucasia, but not with reflexes of a Proto-NC term.

P. 16 refers to the well-known set of terms for ‘horse’:

- (3) Abx *čə*, Circ *šə*, Ub *č'ə* (PWC **č^{hwjə}*), cf. Avar *ču* (PAvar-Andi **ɟič^{wə}*), Lak *č^{wu}* vs. Andi *iča*, Axv, Tindi, Kar *ič^{wə}*, Cham *iša*, Botl, Godob *iča*, Bagv *ič^w*, Dargi *urči*, Lezgi *šiw*, Archi *noIš*, Xin *pši* 'horse'.

The author refers to these correspondences in order to show that “[t]he individual EC languages too underwent considerable changes, which often parallel their evolution in WC” (p. 15). I do not fully understand which aspect Chirikba refers to when giving the example in (3). Most likely, he alludes to the augmented versions that are lacking in WC, Avar, and Lak. The regional distribution suggests that underlying **əčwə* did not result from a PEC form, but from a borrowing process. In this context, we cannot exclude the possibility that it has emerged from a reflex of Indo-European **h₁ek^hyo-* ‘horse’ related to Proto-Indo-Iranian **ácuas* ‘horse’ [‘aeuās]. The same form would then have found its way into the West Caucasian languages (see Schulze 2014).¹

In Footnote 22 on p. 9, the author states: “The PNC and PEC reconstructions are from NCED. Though not all reconstructed forms in NCED can be accepted without reservations, here I am more concerned with showing the general lines of the evolution of PWC, rather than with dwelling into the discussion of details of the reconstructed system.” The author’s reliance on the NCED is probably one of the weak points of the paper at issue. The examples given above illustrate that an in-depth discussion of the cognates suggested by Nikolayev & Starostin (1994) is a necessary prerogative before using them in the sense Chirikba does. On the one hand, this is a matter of quantity. The author gives some forty examples of possible cognates (some of which are mentioned twice or thrice). A closer inspection (eliminating probable loans) reduces the set of reliable cognates to perhaps twenty correspondences. Problematic sets are also those that relate WC lexical units to assumed correspondences present in only one or two subgroups of EC; cf. the following examples:

- (4) Andi, Axv, Tindi, Botl, Godob *miq^ˈ:i*, Cham, Bagv *miq^ˈ:*, cf. Ub *məb^ˈia* ‘road, way’ (Abx *a-mh^{wə}* < **məh^{wə}*)

The root included in these lexemes has a much broader distribution, cf. Chechen *neq^ˈ*, Ingush and Bats *niq^ˈ*, Dargi *da^ˈq^ˈ*, Lezgi *req^ˈ*, Tabasaran *raq^ˈ:*, Aghul *req^ˈ:*, Rutul *raq^ˈ*, Archi *deq^ˈ:*, Tsakhur *yaq^ˈ:*, Udi *yaq^ˈ* (the inclusion of Khinalug *k^ˈar* as suggested by Nikolayev & Starostin (1994: 604) is extremely doubtful). The Lezgian terms clearly hint at Proto-Lezgian **raq^ˈ:* that also underlies Dargi *da^ˈq^ˈ*. Hence we have at least three versions, namely **niq^ˈ* (Nakh), **miq^ˈ:i* (Avaro-Andian), and **raq^ˈ:* (Lezgian). In order to arrive at a PEC stem, the NCED simply merges the two versions *miq^ˈ:i* and *raq^ˈ:*, adding

1. S.A. Starostin proposed the reverse, PIE < PNC. See his article in this issue (p. 106) [Ed.].

an initial laryngeal (**Hrēm̥q*:ʔ). A corresponding formula would read: If we have **ax* and **bx*, the underlying form is **abx* (or **bax*). This kind of reconstruction, however, ignores possible morphological units present in the given lexemes. In the case of the terms for ‘road, path’, we might think of two different types of derivational prefixes, namely **mə-* (Avaro-Andian) and **rə-* (Dargi and Lezgian). EC-internally, it is not evident which of these prefixes would have been given in PEC (if given at all). Both prefixes are well documented as petrified elements in EC. However, the distribution of both is not subgroup-specific. In addition, it is doubtful, whether **mə-* represents the original phonetic form of this prefix, given the many instances that show **bə-* instead of **mə-*. The correspondences given in (4) suggest that **mə-* had been part of the root already in PEC. However, we may likewise have to deal with an innovation in Avaro-Andian that would have replaced an older **rə-*. If this is true, the WC forms would have to be separated from the EC lexemes. By neglecting the forms that would hint at **rəqʰ*, the author of the paper under discussion simplifies the matter to an extent that renders his arguments rather suggestive.

- (5) Chech, Ing *baza* ‘fir-tree’, Lak *wac’a* ‘forest’, Ad *mazə* ‘forest’, Ub *məʒʔə* ‘prickle, thorn’.

Again, the relevance of this set of correspondences is not fully clear. The comparison is grounded on data from just Nakh and Lak (but also note Dargi *wac’a*). Nikolayev & Starostin (1994: 539) add Andi *himc*:ʔir ‘fir-tree’, not attested in actual sources (Andi has *c:iʔrhu*, obviously grounded in a root **cʔir*). Given the fact that fir-trees are quite uncommon in the Northern Caucasus, we can expect that we have to deal with borrowings in most cases (see Comrie & Khalilov 2010: 406 for the corresponding entries). This also questions the semantic aspect: Given that firs are far from being prototypical representatives of trees in the woods of the Northern Caucasus, it is difficult to understand why the concept ‘fir’ would be metonymically transformed to the concept of ‘wood/forest’ in Lak and Adyghe. The same holds for the other direction: In case we have to start from the concept ‘wood/forest’ it would be rather unlikely that this concept would have been narrowed down to ‘fir’ in Chechen.

- (6) Chech *c’eca-joqqurg* ‘weasel’ (*j-oqqa* ‘big’), Xin *c’iza-šxer* ‘hedgehog’, cf. Ad *cəza*, Kab *ʒəza* ‘marten’, Ub *c’aca* ‘beaver’.

This set of correspondences taken — with respect to EC — from just Chechen and Khinalug is characterized by two false friends: Khinalug actually reads *c’izaš-xer*: ‘something that shivers’ and hence has nothing to do with the WC terms. The same holds

for Chechen *c'e-ca-yoqqurg* that actually means 'its name is not mentioned' (a tabooing formation, cf. Shakhbieva 1998).²

For sake of brevity, I do not discuss all the sets of correspondences referred to by the author. Still, it seems evident that the NCED calls for a very careful and extensive revision of the data given in the NCED (including the elimination of loans and the revision of the reconstructed forms). Likewise, we have to describe in much more detail the word formation processes in EC in order to accurately reconstruct the word formation patterns in PEC (and its subgroups) before trying to relate the corresponding data to WC. Even without this, the author should have considered alternative proposals related to the reconstruction of certain terms in order to evaluate the WC/EC correspondences proposed by the NCED. Let me take one example:

- (7) Chech, Ing, Bats *so*, Rut *zi*, Tsax, Udi *zu*, Xin *zi*, cf. Abx *sa*, Circ *se*, Ub *sə*- 'I'; Lak *wi*, Rut, Xin *wi*, Tsax *wu*, cf. Abx *wa*, Circ *we*, Ub *wə*- 'thou'; Chech, Ing, Bats *šu*, Lak *zu*, Aghul *čū-n*, Tsax *šu*, Archi *ž^we-n*, Xin *zu-r*, cf. PWC **s^wa* 'you (pl.)';

Again, the sets of correspondences are rather selective. At a first glance, the correspondences given *e.g.* the 2.SG are rather convincing. A closer look at the EC data, however, reveals that the underlying form for PEC not necessarily reflect **uō* as suggested by the NCED (p. 1014-1015). (8) lists the reconstruction of the personal pronouns for PEC and the individual subgroups as elaborated by Schulze (2011: 59-126):

(8)

	PEC	NAKH	AVARO-ANDIAN-TSEZ	LAK/DARGI	LEZGIAN
1SG	*z ^w ə-	*su-o	*dV _{pal}	*du	*z ^w ə-
2SG	*ğ ^w ə-	*ħu-o	*dV _{lab} /*mV	*ħ ^w ə	*ğ ^w ə-
1.PL (i)	*t̪i- (?)	[*way]	*iλ:i	[*-x̣:a]	*x̣:ə-
1PL (e)	*žjə-	*txu-o	[*iš:i]	[*žu]	*žjə-
2PL	*ž ^w ə-	*šu	*biš:di	*-š:a/zu	*ž ^w ə-

Note that the NCED erroneously includes the Nakh 1.PL inclusive (**way*) that, however, is clearly borrowed from an Indo-European language into Nakh. According to the data in (8), the 2.SG has to be reconstructed as *ğ^wə-*, not as **uō* (see Schulze 2011 for details). Referring to the WC correspondences for *ğ^w-* given in the NCED, we would expect forms

2. Note that this comparison was later removed by the author (Chirikba) [Ed.].

starting with ζ^w - (for Abkhaz etc.) and $\check{\zeta}^w$ - (for Adyghe etc.) instead of w -. Likewise, $*\check{z}^w$ - (2.PL) should yield something like \check{z} - or \check{z}^w - in WC, but not reflexes of $*s^w$ -.

Leaving aside other problematic correspondences listed by the author, one might state that the lexical evidence for secure WC-EC etymologies is rather meager. Naturally, this impression is also due to the fact that Chirikba does not refer to these sets of correspondences in order to demonstrate systematically all relevant sound correspondences between PEC and PWC. Actually, we cannot expect him to do so, since the author emphatically subscribes to the idea of ‘North Caucasian’. Still, the paper would perhaps have been less suggestive in case it had considered those arguments that question this idea in more detail. At least, one would have expected that the author had checked the reliability of the correspondences he mentions in detail.

The same holds for his observations concerning morphology. The list given on pp. 18-19 is extremely problematic with respect to the EC data. Consider the prohibitive marker **ma*. Although the details are not fully understood yet, it is evident that we have to deal with a kind of *wanderwort* that is present far beyond the Northern Caucasus, cf. for Indo-European Sanskrit, Avestan, and Old Persian *mā*, Greek μή, Armenian *mi*, Albanian *mo-s* etc., and Turkic *-mI-* as well as Semitic **mā*. Other units mentioned by Chirikba for PEC are far from being secure reconstructions. For instance, the assumption that an actually rather rare nominal stem augment *-m-* once had formed the basis of the ergative goes against much of what we know about the history of ergative morphemes in the EC languages. Likewise, the two topical particles **-gi/*-gu* and **-ra* have a very restricted distribution in EC (Avaro-Andian resp. Lak and Dargi). The idea to relate the PWC locative suffix **-na/ə* to the assumed PEC genitive suffix **-n* (itself far from being ascertained) would only be plausible in case we can show that the PEC genitive originally functioned as a locative (ablative > partitive). As far as I know, no such evidence is, however, given. The assumption that PWC **b-*, by itself a “suffixal marker of numerals for non-human referents” and the “prefix of 2nd person (fem.), personal pronoun ‘thou’ (fem.) (PAbx)”, has its parallel in the PEC Class III marker **b-* seems highly problematic from a functional point of view. The author should have described in more detail possible communicative scenarios that would have motivated the use of a third person Class III anaphor when addressing a female speech act partner. In principle, this is not improbable in terms of a social deixis. It would also allow relating the PEC Class I prefix **w-* to the PWC marker for the 2SG (males), cf. Abkhaz *wa*, Adyghe *we*, Ubykh *wə-* ‘thou’. A typological parallel would be the 18th/19th century use of German *er* ‘he’ and *sie* ‘she’ as second person pronouns. Nevertheless, this idea presupposes that **b-* once had functioned as an independent anaphor in early PEC, which should then also hold for the other class markers (**w-* I, **r-/y-* II, **d-* IV in the singular). Still, there are no traces of such elements in PEC outside the system of class markers. Other morphemes such as the comitative affix **-ci* or the instrumental **-se* have such a restricted distribution in the EC languages that their reconstruction for PEC remains more than doubtful.

In fact, I think that any effort to relate grammatical units of WC to those given in the EC languages is premature. Despite the work of Alekseev (1985, 1988) we cannot say that we know much about the grammar of PEC. This is mainly due to the fact that we even lack full-fledged historical comparative grammars of the individual subgroups that would meet the standards of, *e.g.*, Indo-European comparative linguistics. Without such work at hand, comparative approaches that aim at relating EC to other languages often refer to grammatical units in the individual present-day languages. However, given the fact that EC includes twenty-nine or thirty languages all of them marked for a high degree of morphology the chance is very high of finding this or that element in one or the other language that would match a unit under consideration. One of my teachers once told me: The EC languages are like a bazaar: Somewhere in this bazaar, you will always find what you need.

Chirikba ends his paper by saying that the relationship of WC and EC “was definitively demonstrated by modern historical linguists, Sergei Starostin, Sergei Nikolayev and Auez Abdokov” (p. 23). Personally, I dare to say that this apologetic formulation comes much too early. I do not advocate for the contrary, namely that WC and EC would not be related at all. It is common ground in historical comparative linguistics that we *cannot* prove that languages are *not* related. However, I strongly argue in favor of a much more cautious way of approaching the question of whether a WC/EC relationship is given at all. This has to include not only much more work on the lexical inventories of the individual EC subgroups by eliminating all possible older and younger loan layers and *wanderworte* (both from the EC internal and EC external perspective), by modeling plausible semantic shifts, and by embedding the reconstructed items into what we know about the cultural world of PEC. Likewise, we have to elaborate in detail the grammar of PEC, which is by and large opaque, not so much with respect to its structural and functional layout, but with respect to its formal inventory. Only then would we have a safer basis in order to tackle the question of a WC/EC relationship. Such a hypothesis should also consider assumptions about the *urheimat* of both PWC and PEC. Unfortunately, Chirikba is rather silent about this point. All he says is that “EC was developing in a habitat geographically more isolated from external influences” (p. 21), whereas he assumes a process of “creolization of the early PWC dialect, which could happen as a result of migration, either of the speakers of the early PWC dialect to a new habitat which had an older population, with which they then mixed, or, vice versa, a migration of speakers of another language who moved to the territory occupied by the bearers of early PWC” (p. 21). Maybe Chirikba should have made clearer what he means by “creolization”. Actually, creolization presupposes a Pidgin state that, however, would have conditioned a rather isolating type of language, developing in a more analytic type during creolization (in fact creoles rarely reflect the morphology of the corresponding superstrate). In addition, we should expect that a stock of lexical units (usually encompassing typical domains) would have been taken from the substrate language(s).

To my knowledge, no detailed studies exist concerning such a hypothetical lexical layer in WC. Another point is the following: Chirikba argues that “after it [PWC, W.S.] eventually evolved, having acquired nearly all the features of its modern make-up, late PWC (= CWC) remained stable over a considerable period of time. This might indicate that late CWC was not exposed to significant external linguistic influences or contacts, and the only factor in its slowed evolution was contact between its separated dialects” (p. 21). This can only be understood in case the early PWC speakers, having migrated into their new Northwest Caucasian homeland, linguistically (and culturally?) merged with the local population to an extent that practically no other relevant speech communities would have existed anymore. Given the location of the new homeland at the Eastern rim of the Black Sea, such a scenario, however, is not very convincing (recall the famous report by Plinius the Elder in his *Historia naturalis*, according to which the village of Dioscurias in Colchis once hosted three hundred nations with different languages” (VI, 15)). Accordingly, it seems appropriate to develop scenarios different from that proposed by Chirikba in order to account for the fact that the WC languages are rather homogenous from a structural point of view. On the other hand, the question of where the original homeland of PEC speakers had been is far from being ascertained. Candidates are the lowlands of northern Daghestan or the regions of central Azerbaijan. In my eyes, the second option seems to be more appropriate (cf. Schulze 1988 for details), which would perhaps relate the PEC world to the Kuro-Araxes cultural traditions. If this assumption were correct, it would be difficult to describe the migration route of Pre-PWC speakers into their present-day territory. Assuming two different homelands, however, would argue against a linguistic relationship in the sense of Chirikba’s thesis. Rather, we would have to think of a diffusion of certain linguistic features that perhaps started at the times when early EC speakers commenced to settle in the northern regions of the Caucasus.

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A Response to Suggestions and Comments By the Reviewers of my Article

Viacheslav A. Chirikba

I would like to present here my reactions to the suggestions and critical comments concerning my article by experts working in the field of Caucasian and comparative linguistics.

I start with comments by Dr. John Colarusso, a well-known specialist in Caucasian, especially West Caucasian, linguistics. There are obvious points on which our views differ. For example, I do not see any possibility of genetically connecting West Caucasian (WC), taken separately from East Caucasian (EC), with Indo-European (IE) as branches of a bigger family or phylum. At the same time I do agree with Dr. Colarusso that “one of the plausible neighbors to WC at an early period was Proto-Indo-European”. Sometimes we have different ideas on particular reconstructions and etymologies. *E.g.*, I do not see in PWC **H^wa* ‘dog’ a loan from IE **wlkw-os* ‘wolf’, since the PWC form has good matches in EC words for ‘dog’; see the comparisons under (11). The Adyghe word for ‘bear’ in (14) is /*məs’a*/ (or /*məša*/, to use a more traditional transcription), not **/məša/*, so there is no error on my part. Agreeing with N. Trubetzkoy, I treat apical alveolar sibilants in all WC languages, with the exception of Kabardian, as a palatalized series. In (2) I only quote correspondences contained in Trubetzkoy’s paper, and in my 1996 book I do discuss the correspondence Abx *pš-* and Circ *pλ-* ‘to see’, so there is no oversight. A cognate of Ub *wa* ‘big, long’ is Proto-Abx **awə* ‘long, tall’, and from Circassian I adduce different material than Dr. Colarusso. Ubykh *š^waq’a* ‘book’ is indeed a close match to PAbx **š^waq’a* (or **š^waʔa*) ‘id.’, but I am not sure that we are not dealing here with a loan in Ubykh.

Colarusso remarks that WC does not possess a grammatical class systems, but Abkhaz does have one, linkable, though not straightforwardly, to that of EC languages; see on this A. Abdokov¹ and more recently R. Matasović.² I do agree with Dr. Colarusso that “some of the personal pronouns and their clitic verbal “index” variants bear a strong resemblance to some of the class markers of EC”. The WC cognates for ‘day’ are well established (PWC **ma/əλ^wa* > Abx *a-mš*, Ub *məs^wa*, Kab *max^we* ‘day’), and the EC

1. Aues Abdokov, *Vvedenie v sravnitel’no-istoricheskiju morfologiju abxazsko-adygskix i naxsko-dagestanskix jazykov*. Nal’chik, 1981, p. 54-65.

2. Ranko Matasović, “The origin of gender in Northwest Caucasian” (draft). Cf. https://www.academia.edu/34519267/The_origin_of_gender_in_Northwest_Caucasian.

cognates are also quite plausible (Chechen, Ingush *malχ* ‘sun’, Andi, Axvax, Tindi, Godoberi *miłi* ‘sun’, Chamala *mił* ‘sun, day’), so there is no need to revise the comparison.

It is true that while reconstructing PWC we arrive at a very large number of consonants, but the problem dissipates when we take in account that many of these “colored” consonants were in fact combinations “consonant plus vowel” (CV), rather than single phonemes, and that their reconstruction as consonants (*C^V) is a mere technical convention, easily re-readable as */C+V/, which would produce a more “normal” PWC consonant system (see in (8) “A tentative inventory of early PWC consonant system,” containing as few as 40 consonants), and, *en revanche*, a more sophisticated vocalic system.

Dr. Colarusso’s comments and suggestions are valuable and most welcome, and I share his opinion that utmost care to details is a must in such a thorny terrain as North Caucasian comparative linguistics. I feel gratified with Colarusso’s remark that “With his effort Chirikba has convinced me, a skeptic for decades, that links across the North Caucasus are worthy of time and effort, and in fact may bear unexpected fruit.”

The German colleague Dr. Wolfgang Schulze, a specialist in EC languages, is more difficult to convince. I agree with him that “in-depth discussion of the cognates suggested by Nikolayev & Starostin (1994) is a necessary prerogative before using them”, and that “it seems evident that the NCED calls for a very careful and extensive revision of the data given in the NCED (including the elimination of loans and the revision of the reconstructed forms)”.

The problem, however is, that the critics of S. Nikolayev’s and S. Starostin’s “North Caucasian Etymological Dictionary” (NCED) concentrate mainly on demonstrating its weak points, for example, on borrowings mistaken for true cognates, or wrong forms or etymologies, and on them they base their final judgement about the validity of the reconstructed Proto-North Caucasian (PNC) system, but they are unwilling to assess and discuss its stronger component, which, in my view, renders the reconstructed system as viable, while this selective approach leaves the whole picture rather imbalanced.

As to details, Dr. Schulze cites J. Gippert’s attempt to see in Lezgian words for ‘dove’ (see comparisons in 17) a borrowing from Old Armenian *alawni* ‘dove’, which then somehow spread from Lezgian to Dargi. The question is whether the Armenian form *alawni* could have become a source for Albanian³ (Old Udi) *luf* and for other Daghestanian forms, with an unexplained loss of both the initial vowel and the final syllable (-*ni*). Besides, the Armenian word itself is now regarded as a borrowing from a

3. As Dr. Chirikba indicates, this “Albanian” is the so-called “Caucasian Albanian,” the ancient kingdom of Albania in the Caucasus, where an old form of Udi was spoken. There is no historical or linguistic connection with the Albanian ethnicity in Balkan Europe. [Ed.]

Mediterranean substrate language.⁴ In view of the above-said, I rather doubt that the Armenian and Daghestanian forms are related.

The words for gold and copper, I agree, may have indeed undergone borrowing in one direction or another. Moreover, the borrowing of EC and WC words for ‘horse’ from an IE form, which has been suggested by a number of authors, especially in view of Proto-Indo-Iranian **ácyas* ‘horse’, is indeed a possibility.⁵

But this concerns so far cultural terms, which are easily borrowable. What about the more “basic” vocabulary? Let’s take, for example, the word for ‘way, road’. The reviewer deems the suggested EC cognate to WC **məh^{wj}a* ‘road, way’, namely, the Avaro-Andian form *miq*’:i, to be secondary as compared to the phonetic variants in Lezgi languages with rhotic anlaut. He writes: “we may likewise have to deal with an innovation in Avaro-Andian that would have replaced an older **rə*-. If this is true, the WC forms would have to be separated from the EC lexemes.” However, it is not explained why the variant with the rhotic anlaut should be regarded as more original as compared to the one with the initial bilabial. After all, we have nasal anlaut in WC (**məh^{wj}a*), Nakh (*neq*’/niq’) and Avaro-Andian (**miq*’:i), as contrasted with rhotic, dental or palatal ones in Lezgi (Lezgi *req*, Archi *deq*’, Udi *jaq*:), which could indicate that it is the latter one that might have innovated. I agree with Dr. Schulze, however, that all these variants should be properly discussed.

I do not think that many specialists would agree that Nakh **way* ‘we’ (incl.) should be regarded as borrowed from an Indo-European language, as suggested by Dr. Schulze.

All the elaborate argumentation against practically any proposed EC-WC cognate (cf. the discussion of the terms for fir-tree/wood, personal pronouns, morphological elements and particles, etc.), even the most straightforward ones, leaves an impression of a solid view taken by the reviewer that EC and WC are not genetically related, and that any resemblance between their forms should be explained by anything else (chance similarity, language contact, wrong etymologies, etc.) but by shared genetic inheritance. This is a clear position, and here we just have to agree to disagree. I also cannot agree with the notion that the historical-comparative research in the field of EC-WC relationship is premature – it is certainly not! On the other hand, I am grateful to Dr. Schulze for demonstrating the possibility of alternative solutions for concrete etymologies, and for pointing out some mistaken cognates or forms.

I thank Dr. Václav Blažek for his positive assessment of my work. As to his remark on Georgy Klimov, I must say that all relevant works by this great Soviet/Russian Caucasian scholar are referred to in my doctoral thesis, whose Russian language version, updated and revised, I am now preparing for publication.

4. See H. Martirosyan, *Etymological Dictionary of the Armenian Inherited Lexicon*. Brill, 2010, p. 31.

5. S.A. Starostin proposed the reverse, PIE < PNC. See his article in this issue (p. 106) [Ed.].

I am indebted to all of the esteemed reviewers for their valuable comments and critiques, which are essential to attaining better results when dealing with such an extremely complex issue as North Caucasian reconstruction. There is certainly a regrettable lack of expert debate on many aspects of the (pre-)history of Caucasian languages, and such a rare occasion as this discussion presents a welcome opportunity.

Prehistoric Language Contact on the Steppes: The Case of Indo-European and Northwest Caucasian

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ABSTRACT: There have been numerous attempts to find relatives of Proto-Indo-European, not the least of which is the Indo-Uralic Hypothesis. According to this hypothesis, Proto-Indo-European and Proto-Uralic are alleged to descend from a common ancestor. However, attempts to prove this hypothesis have run into numerous difficulties. One difficulty concerns the inability to reconstruct the ancestral morphological system in detail, and another concerns the rather small shared vocabulary. This latter problem is further complicated by the fact that many scholars think in terms of borrowing rather than inheritance. Moreover, the lack of agreement in vocabulary affects the ability to establish viable sound correspondences and rules of combinability. This paper will attempt to show that these and other difficulties are caused, at least in large part, by the question of the origins of the Indo-European parent language. Evidence will be presented to demonstrate that Proto-Indo-European is the result of the imposition of a Eurasiatic language — to use Greenberg's term — on a population speaking one or more primordial Northwest Caucasian languages.

What exactly is Proto-Indo-European, and where did it come from? Which languages did it come into contact with, and can evidence of such contact be ascertained? Moreover, what was the impact of that contact on the phonology, morphology, and lexicon of Proto-Indo-European? These are important questions, not only for understanding the prehistory of Proto-Indo-European itself, but also for the bearing that the answers to these questions have on the ability to determine the language or languages with which Proto-Indo-European is most likely related.

Let us begin with some basic premises:

1. The most likely homeland of speakers of the unified Indo-European parent language was located to the north of and between the Black and Caspian Seas (see figure 1). This scenario is supported not only by linguistic evidence, but also by a growing body of archeological and genetic evidence. The Indo-Europeans have been identified with several cultural complexes existing in that area between 4,500—3,500 BCE. The literature supporting such a homeland is both extensive and persuasive (many of these works are listed in the references at the end of this paper). Consequently, other scenarios regarding the possible Indo-European homeland, such as Anatolia, have now been mostly abandoned.
2. Proto-Indo-European had neighbors: Uralic languages were spoken to the north, Caucasian languages were spoken to the south, and Altaic and several so-called “Paleosiberian” languages were spoken to the east. Further south, in and around the Fertile Crescent, Semitic languages were spoken. Though it is not known what languages lay to the west, it is known that Indo-Europeans were not the first inhabitants of Europe, and Basque survives to this day as the sole remaining language from before the Indo-Europeanization of Europe.
3. By about 3,500 BCE, Proto-Indo-European had already split up into several distinct dialects, which, in turn, had begun to spread westward, southward, and eastward, away from the original core (see figure 2).
4. The first dialect to separate from the main speech community was Anatolian. No doubt, the next to leave was Tocharian.
5. Proto-Indo-European was a highly inflected language, and its grammatical structure has been reconstructed in great detail — except for particles, conjunctions, and certain quasi-adverbial forms, all words were inflected. The basic structure of inflected words was as follows: root + suffix (one or more) + inflectional ending. A notable morphophonemic characteristic was the extensive use of a system of vocalic alternations (“Ablaut” in German) as a means to mark morphological distinctions.

Verbs were strongly differentiated from nouns. For nouns and adjectives, three genders, three numbers, and as many as eight cases have been reconstructed (mainly on the basis of what is found in Classical Sanskrit), though it is doubtful that all of these features were ancient — it is indeed possible to discern several distinct chronological stages of development (cf. Bomhard 2015.1:105—112 and 1:580—583; Lehmann 2002). The traditional reconstruction of the Proto-Indo-European verbal system sets up two voices, four moods, and as many as six tenses. Syntactically, Proto-Indo-European seems to have had many of the characteristics of an SOV language, though there must, no doubt, have been a great deal of flexibility in basic word order patterning. Finally, Proto-Indo-European clearly had a nominative-accusative type structure, at least in its later stages of development.

Figure 1: According to Villar (1991:15), the following map shows the location of Indo-European-speaking people at about 5,000—4,500 BCE, while the hatched area above the Caspian Sea indicates the earliest probable location of the Indo-Europeans.

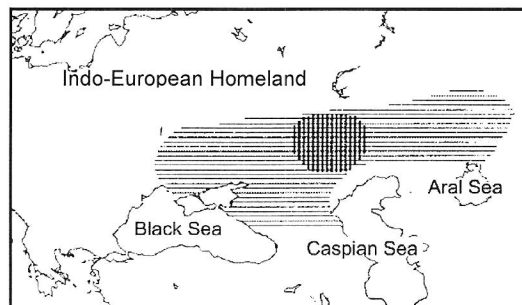
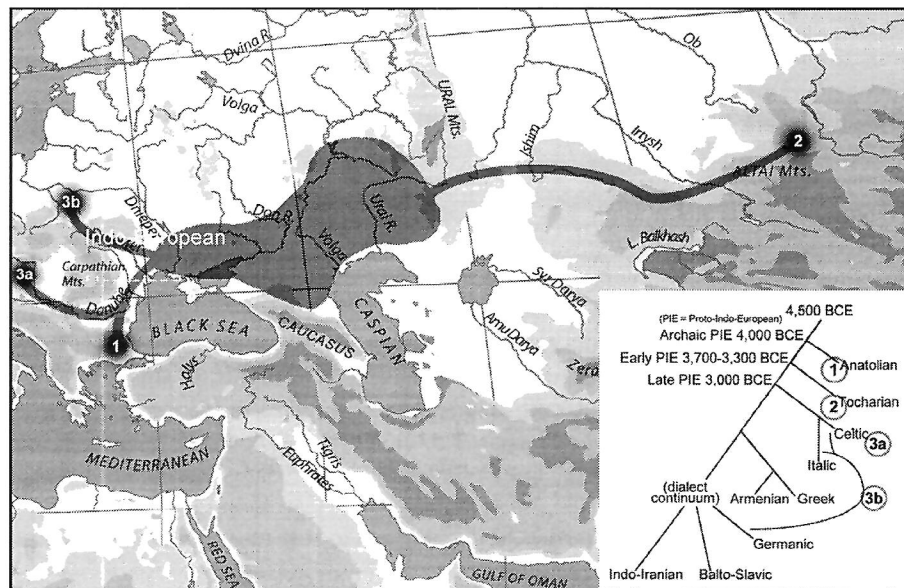


Figure 2: The early dispersal of the Indo-European languages (cf. Anthony 2013:7):



Note: According to Anthony, the first three migrations out of the Indo-European homeland were:

1. Anatolian;
2. Tocharian;
3. (a) Celtic;
- (b) Germanic.

But, there is more. It has long been recognized that the form of Proto-Indo-European reconstructed in the standard handbooks is not the earliest form that can be recovered. That form of Proto-Indo-European

contains the remnants of successive earlier stages of development. Recent scholarship, particularly over the past three decades or so, has turned its attention more and more to investigating the prehistoric development of Proto-Indo-European. As a result, several prominent linguists have proposed that Proto-Indo-European may have been an active-type language at an earlier period of development, while others have thought more in terms of an ergative-type structure. Moreover, it is becoming increasingly evident that the complicated morphological system reconstructed by the Neogrammarians for Proto-Indo-European, mainly on the basis of Sanskrit and Greek, was a later development. The relative simplicity of the Hittite morphological system is now seen to be an archaism.

The phonological system has also attracted considerable attention, especially the system of stops. Here, mention may be made of the so-called “Glottalic Theory” (cf. Salmons 1993; Bomhard 2016), according to which the traditional plain voiced stops (*b, *d, *g, *g^w) are reinterpreted as glottalics (*p', *t', *k', *k'^w), with a possible gap at the bilabial point of articulation, or, if not an outright gap, at least a very low frequency of occurrence (see figures 3 and 4). One thing is certain, Proto-Indo-European had a history, and, little by little, that history is being uncovered.

Figure 3: The glottalic reconstruction of the Proto-Indo-European consonant system according to Gamkrelidze—Ivanov (1995.1:5—70):

Traditional				Gamkrelidze—Ivanov			
I	II	III		I	II	III	
(b) b ^h	p	=		(p')	bh/b	ph/p	
d	d ^h	t	=	t'	dh/d	th/t	
g	g ^h	k	=	k'	gh/g	kh/k	
g ^w	g ^{wh}	k ^w	=	k' ^u	g ^u h/g ^u	k ^u h/k ^u	

Notes:

1. Gamkrelidze—Ivanov reinterpret the traditional plain voiced stops (series I) as glottalics (ejectives);
2. They make no changes to the traditional voiced aspirates (series II);
3. They reinterpret the traditional plain voiceless stops (series III) as voiceless aspirates;
4. They point out, however, that the feature of aspiration is phonemically irrelevant in a system of this type, the choice between the aspirated and unaspirated variants being mechanically determined by the paradigmatic alternations of root morphemes.

Figure 4: Reconstruction of the Proto-Indo-European phonological system during its latest period of development according to Bomhard (2015.1:59):

Obstruents:	I	p ^h	t ^h	k ^{y^h}	k ^h	k ^{wh}	
	II	b ^h	d ^h	g ^{y^h}	g ^h	g ^{wh}	
	III	(p')	t'	k ^{y'}	k'	k' ^w	
			s				
Laryngeals:		ʔ	h	ḥh			
				ʕh			
		ʔ ^w		ḥh ^w			
Resonants:		m/ṃ	n/ṇ	l/ḷ	r/ṛ	w/u	y/i
Vowels:	e	o	a	(i)	(u)	ə	
		ē	ō	ā	ī	ū	

Notes:

1. Series I is voiceless aspirated; series II is voiced aspirated; and series III is glottalized (ejectives).

2. Voiced aspirates (series II) may have already developed, or at least started to develop, at this stage, but this is uncertain. They are really only needed in order to account for developments in Armenian, Indo-Iranian, Greek, and Italic.
3. The glottalics (series III) became deglottalized just prior to the emergence of the non-Anatolian Indo-European daughter languages. The resulting system was as follows:

Obstruents: I	p ^h	t ^h	k ^{yh}	k ^h	k ^{wh}	
	II	b ^h	d ^h	g ^{yh}	g ^h	g ^{wh}
	III	(p)	t	k ^y	k	k ^w

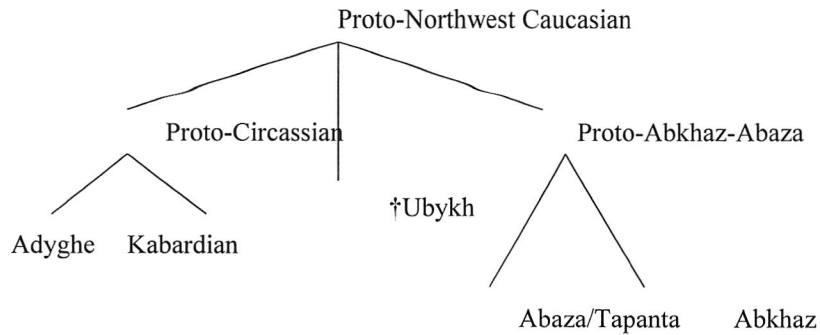
4. The palatalovelars may already have started to become phonemic at this stage, at least in the ancestors of those daughter languages (the “*satəm*” languages) in which the labiovelars were delabialized. They did not become phonemic in the ancestors of the so-called “*centum*” daughter languages.

As we delve further into the prehistory of Proto-Indo-European, we begin to see that, in its earlier stages of development, Proto-Indo-European is characterized by a mix of phonological, morphological, and lexical features which link it, ever so tenuously, with other languages of northern Eurasia — to cite one example, similarities in pronoun stems are particularly striking. Though these links hint at some sort of distant linguistic relationship, proof has remained elusive. There is something about Proto-Indo-European that sets it apart. In many respects, it is typologically divergent from the other languages of northern Eurasia. For example, it is the only reconstructed language of the region with a series of voiced aspirates. Its root structure patterning is different, as are its nominal case system and complicated verbal structure. Its system of vowel gradation is more akin to what is found in Kartvelian. Its vocabulary is also distinctive. If Proto-Indo-European is, in fact, distantly related to other languages of northern Eurasia, then the differences which set it apart from them require an explanation.

As was mentioned at the beginning of this paper, the homeland of Proto-Indo-European was situated north of and between the Black and Caspian Seas. This was undoubtedly the final homeland — it was where Proto-Indo-European developed its unique characteristics. However, it is probable that this was not the original homeland of the speakers of what was to become Proto-Indo-European. In a paper published in 1997, Johanna Nichols argued that the earliest Indo-European speech community was located in Central Asia (note also Uhlenbeck 1937). She proposes that Pre-Proto-Indo-European spread westward across the steppes, eventually arriving on the northeastern shores of the Black Sea. I support this scenario. I would place the Pre-Indo-Europeans in Central Asia at about 7,000 BCE, and I would date their initial arrival in the vicinity of the Black Sea at about 5,000 BCE — this is somewhat earlier than the date Nichols assigns. No doubt, the immigration occurred in waves and took place over an extended period of time. Though it is not known for certain what language or languages were spoken in the area before the arrival of Indo-European-speaking people, it is known that the Pre-Indo-Europeans were not the first inhabitants of the area — several chronologically and geographically distinct cultural complexes have been identified there. This is an extremely critical point. The contact that resulted between these two (or more) linguistic communities is what produced the Indo-European parent language.

Fortunately, there are clues regarding who may have been there when the Pre-Indo-Europeans arrived on the shores of the Black Sea. In a series of papers written over the past twenty years or so, John Colarusso has explored phyletic links between Proto-Indo-European and Northwest Caucasian. Colarusso has identified similarities in both morphology and lexicon — enough of them for Colarusso to think in terms of a genetic relationship between Proto-Indo-European and Northwest Caucasian. (The Northwest Caucasian family tree is shown in figure 5.) He calls their common ancestor “Proto-Pontic”, which he dates to roughly 10,000 BP (9,000 to 7,000 BCE). (The Proto-Pontic phonological system is shown in figure 6.)

Figure 5: The Northwest Caucasian family tree:



Notes:

1. Ubykh is now extinct;
2. Abaza is also called Tapanta (T'ap'anta);
3. Chirikba (1996a) considers Hattic to have been a Northwest Caucasian language;
4. The Adyghe (also called "West Circassian") branch of Circassian is made up of many dialects, the most important of which are Temirgoy, Bžedux, and Šapsegh;
5. Kabardian is also called "East Circassian" — East Circassian also includes Besleney.

Figure 6: The phonological system reconstructed for "Proto-Pontic" by Colarusso:

Consonants:	p ^h	p	b	-		m		w
	t ^h t	d	t'		n	r	l	
	c ^h c	ɟ	c'	s	z			
	č ^h č	ǰ	č'	š	ž			y
	λ ^h λ	λ	λ'					
	k ^h k	g	k'	χ	ġ			
	q ^h q	-	q'	x	ɣ			
					ħ	ʕ		
				ʔ	h			
Vowels:			i		u			
			e	ə	o			
			a					

Before discussing Colarusso's theories, it would be helpful to outline some of the salient characteristics of the Northwest Caucasian languages, just as we did for Proto-Indo-European above. One of the most noteworthy features of the Northwest Caucasian languages is their large consonant inventories and relatively small vowel inventories. Vowel gradation is a notable characteristic. (The phonological systems of the individual Northwest Caucasian languages are discussed in great detail by Colarusso in his 1975 Harvard University Ph.D. dissertation and by Hewitt in his 2005 *Lingua* article, "North West Caucasian".) The Northwest Caucasian languages are agglutinating languages, with ergative clause alignment. In general, noun morphology is simple. Nouns are marked for case, number, and definiteness, but not gender (Abkhaz and Abaza/Tapanta are exceptions). Demonstratives are characterized by three degrees of deixis: (1) proximate, (2) intermediate, and (3) distant (Ubykh, however, has only two degrees of deixis). Postpositions are the rule. A particularly notable feature of the Northwest Caucasian languages is their highly complex (polysynthetic) verb systems. Gerundive and participial forms are also widely used. Word order is SOV. The lexicon is analyzable into a small number of short roots.

Let us now take a closer look at Colarusso's proposals. First, he makes significant changes to the reconstruction of the Proto-Indo-European phonological system. He calls his new reconstruction "Fortified Proto-Indo-European" (figure 7). It consists of three series of stops (voiceless aspirated, plain voiced, and glottalized); palatalized, plain, and labialized velars; a series of plain and labialized postvelars; and eleven

laryngeals, including labialized varieties. Colarusso posits only two vowels for “Fortified Proto-Indo-European”: $*ə \sim *a$ (plus tonal stress). He claims that his revisions present a typologically more accurate form of Proto-Indo-European, and, in this, he is most definitely correct, whether one agrees or not with the details of his reconstruction.

Figure 7: “Fortified Proto-Indo-European” phonological system as reconstructed by Colarusso (1992a:23):

Consonants: p ^h	b	-		m			w
	t ^h	d	t'	s	n	r	l
	k ^{hy}	g ^y	k' ^y				
	(k ^h)	g	k')				
	k ^{hw}	g ^w	k' ^w				
	q ^h	-	q'	x	ɣ		
	q ^{hw}	-	q' ^w	x ^w	ɣ ^w		
					ɸ	ʒ	
					ɸ ^w	ʒ ^w	
			ʔ	h			
			ʔ ^w				

Vowels: $ə \sim a$ (plus tonal stress)

Note: Colarusso assumes that the laryngeals were lost in stages. The earliest laryngeals to be lost were $*\text{ʔ}$, $*h$, and $*\text{ʔ}^w$. The loss of these laryngeals between preceding short vowels and a following obstruent gave rise to “inherently” long vowels. The remaining laryngeals underwent various changes and were eventually lost altogether prior to the emergence of the non-Anatolian daughter languages. Some laryngeal reflexes persisted in Anatolian.

Next, Colarusso investigates morphological similarities, beginning with a series of nominal suffixes, which he claims are common to Proto-Indo-European and Northwest Caucasian. Next, he lists several other endings, such as participles, abstracts, cases, etc. After discussing these endings, he moves on to demonstrative and personal pronouns. He finishes his examination of morphology with particles and verbal endings and suffixes (figures 8—12).

Figure 8: Nominal suffixes which Colarusso (1992a:26—30) claims are common to Proto-Indo-European and Proto-Northwest Caucasian:

Proto-Indo-European	Proto-Northwest Caucasian
1. Athematic $*-\emptyset$	Athematic stems
2. Thematic $*-e/o-$	Thematic stems
3. Adjectives in $*-(e)w-$	Predicative and adverbial $*-u$, $*-(ə)w$
4. Adjectives in $*-yo-$	Adjectives in $*-\hat{g}a-$
5. Abstract adjectives in $*-iyə-$	Adjectives in $*-ya-$
6. Opposition with other stems: $*-yo-$	Enclitic copula $*-g^ya-$ ‘and’
7. Used in oblique cases: $*-en-$	Oblique case, genitive formant $*-n-$ or $*-m-$
8. Secondary NPs: $*-no-$	Derivational suffix $*-nə-$
9. Participle endings $*-eno-$, $*-ono-$	“Pro-tense” $*-ən-$ (replaces tense in concatenated or subordinated [“dependent”] forms)
10. Old kinship suffix $*-(t)er-$	Participle $*X-t^h-ər$
11. Heteroclititic $*-r-/ *-n-$	$*-(ə)r$ in absolutive, $*-əm-$ or $*-ən-$ in oblique cases
12. Comparative $*-yes-/ *-yos-$	Comparative $*-y-č^h$,

superlative *-is-t(h)o-	superlative *-y-č ^h -(də)da
13. Agents in *-ter-, *-tel-	Instrumental (Abaza) -la-
14. Instrumentals in *-tro-, *-tlo-, *-dhro-, *-dhlo-	Instrumental *-la- (same as no. 13)
15. Nominal action suffix *-men-	Old affix *-ma

Figure 9: Participles, abstracts, case forms, etc. common to Proto-Indo-European and Proto-Northwest Caucasian (cf. Colarusso 1992a:30—32):

Proto-Indo-European	Proto-Northwest Caucasian
Participles, abstracts, etc.	
1. Active participle *-ent-, *-ont-, *-nt-	Old participle endings: Abaza -n; Ubykh -nə, -na, plus (Circassian) durative -t ^h -
2. Perfect active participle *-we/os-, *-we/ot-	Aspect suffix *-w(a)-
3. Feminines and abstracts in *-ā, *-y-ā (< *-eA, *-y-eA)	*-xa ‘woman’
4. Collectives in *-yā	Collective *-ġa
Case forms	
5. Accusative *-m/*-n	Oblique: Circassian -m, Ubykh -n
6. Genitive/ablative *-(e/o)s	Old genitive *-š
7. Genitive (thematic) *-o-s(y)o	*-š-y-a > *-š ^y oblique of pronouns in West Circassian
8. Ablative (thematic) *-ō	Ubykh -x ^y a, Abkhaz-Abaza -x ^y a ‘place’
9. Dative *-ey-	Directive-dative *-y(-a)
10. Locative *-i	Old Bžedux dative of pronouns -y
11. Instrumental *-ē, *-ō	*-ə-a > *-ē, *-a-a > *-ā, with *-a the same as in the thematic ablative

Figure 10: Anaphoric, deictic, and relative stems and personal pronoun stems (cf. Colarusso 1992a:32—33):

Proto-Indo-European	Proto-Northwest Caucasian
1. Anaphora: *so-, *to-	*śa ‘what’, *t ^h ə ‘where’
2. Deixis: *-w- > Sanskrit <i>asau</i>	*wə- ‘that (near hearer)’
3. Relative: *yo-	Abkhaz-Abaza y- relative initial verbal index
4. Nominative first person personal pronoun *egō, oblique *-(e)m	*m- ‘that near me’
5. Second person personal pronoun *tu	*w- (< *t ^h w-) (f.) ‘you’

Figure 11: Preverbs and particles (cf. Colarusso 1992a:33—35):

Proto-Indo-European	Proto-Northwest Caucasian
1. <i>*per₂-</i> ‘before’ (< ‘front’)	<i>*pʰa-r-(a-y-)</i> ‘front-along- (dat.-dir.-)’
2. <i>*en-</i> ‘in’ (< ‘interior, inside’)	Abaza <i>-n-</i> in <i>n-c’a-ra</i> ‘in-place-inf.’ = ‘to place inside’
3. <i>*et-</i> ‘without, outside’ (< ‘exterior, outside’)	Abaza <i>-t-</i> ‘from inside out; from below upwards’ (cf. <i>t-ga-ra</i> ‘out-drag-inf.’ = ‘to drag something out’)
4. Final <i>*s</i>	Old oblique in <i>*-š</i>
5. <i>*r</i> ‘and’	<i>*-ra</i> ‘and’
6. <i>*ge</i> ‘because; terminus’	Dative-instrumental <i>*-y-k</i>

Figure 12: Verbal endings and suffixes (cf. Colarusso 1992a:35—40):

Proto-Indo-European	Proto-Northwest Caucasian
1. Athematic: Sanskrit <i>ád-mi</i> ‘I am eating’; Thematic: Sanskrit <i>rod-ā-mi</i> ‘I am crying’	Basic verb athematic: <i>*-tʰ-</i> ‘to be’; <i>*-w-k’-</i> -valence-kill-, Ubykh <i>Ø-s-k’w-q’á</i> ‘it-I-kill- past’ = ‘I killed it’; Verbs with stem final <i>-a-</i> showing thematic conjugation: West Circassian <i>psaaʃa</i> ‘word’, <i>t-zara-psaʃa-a-ya</i> ‘we-reciprocal-converse-thematic V-past’ = ‘we talked’ West Circassian <i>-śa-śa-</i> ‘fall-fall’ = ‘to Fall (as of leaves)’
2. Intensive reduplication: Sanskrit <i>dediṣ-te</i> ‘he teaches and teaches’	
3. Proto-Indo-European themes with <i>*-ē-</i> , <i>*-ō-</i> , <i>*-ā-</i> : I. <i>*-ē-</i> (< <i>*-e₂₁-</i>) stative sense II. <i>*-ā-</i> (< <i>*-e₂-</i>) iterative sense III. <i>*-ō-</i> (< <i>*-e₂₃-</i>) indicating excess	<i>*-q’a-V-</i> affix for action of intimate concern to the speaker <i>*-x-</i> iterative <i>*-q’wa</i> ‘excess’
4. Causative-iterative: <i>*-eyo-</i> , <i>*-ī-</i> , <i>*-y-</i>	Ubykh <i>-aay-</i> ‘again, finally’
5. Sigmatic aorist: <i>*-s-</i>	Circassian <i>-z-</i> stative or accomplished past participle with past pt.
6. <i>*n-</i> infix presents	Ubykh <i>-n</i> dynamic present
7. Primary active 3rd plurals in <i>*-n-</i> ; extended by <i>*-ti</i> > <i>*-(e/o)-n-ti</i>	Ubykh 3rd plural <i>-na-</i>
8. Middle voice in <i>*-dh-</i>	Abaza optative of self-interest <i>s-č’a-n-da</i> ‘I-eat-dep.-middle’ = ‘O, if I could eat!’
9. Perfects in <i>*-k-</i> , <i>*-g-</i> , <i>*-gh-</i>	<i>*-q’a</i> past
10. Optative in <i>*-yē-</i> , <i>*-yə-</i>	<i>*-əy-</i> optative, concessive
11. Primary, active, present, athematic <i>*-i</i>	<i>*-y-</i> present
12. Relic impersonals in <i>*r</i> (cf. Sanskrit <i>śe-re</i> ‘they are lying down’; Old Irish <i>berir</i> ‘he is carried’; Umbrian <i>ier</i> ‘one goes’)	<i>*-ra</i> optional present
13. Futures in <i>*-(ə)s(y)e-/*(ə)s(y)o-</i>	<i>*-š-</i> future
14. Intensives in <i>*-sk(e/o)-</i>	<i>*-šxo</i> > Proto-Circassian <i>*-šxwə</i>
15. Augment <i>*e-</i> (marks the past)	<i>*ʔ(a)</i> > Proto-Circassian <i>*q’(a)</i>

Colarusso ends his study by listing twenty “conventional cognates” between Proto-Indo-European and Northwest Caucasian. As a result of my own research, I have come up with 150 potential lexical parallels

(including some suggested by Colarusso) between Proto-Indo-European and Northwest Caucasian, and these are listed at the end of this paper — no doubt, there are many more.

I believe that Colarusso's work has enormous merit, though not all of his proposals are convincing. However, rather than view these similarities as evidence of genetic relationship, I prefer to see them as evidence that there was prolonged and substantial contact between Proto-Indo-European and Northwest Caucasian. As a result of the socio-cultural interaction with and resultant borrowing from Caucasian languages, especially primordial Northwest Caucasian languages, Proto-Indo-European developed unique characteristics that set it apart from the other languages of northern Eurasia. Though Proto-Indo-European remained a Eurasiatic language at its core, the interaction had a profound impact on the phonology, morphology, and lexicon of Proto-Indo-European (technically, this is known as "contact-induced language change") and gave it a distinctive, Caucasian-like appearance. Cf. Kortlandt 1990.

We have now answered the questions posed at the beginning of this paper: What exactly is Proto-Indo-European, and where did it come from? Which languages did it come into contact with, and can evidence of such contact be ascertained? Moreover, what was the impact of that contact on the phonology, morphology, and lexicon of Proto-Indo-European? The precursor of Proto-Indo-European came from Central Asia. Proto-Indo-European proper is the result of the imposition of a Eurasiatic language on a population speaking one or more primordial Northwest Caucasian languages, as first hinted at by Uhlenbeck (1937).

But, there is more. One of the most significant byproducts of this study is that it provides empirical support for the Glottalic Model of Proto-Indo-European consonantism as well as the interpretation of the traditional plain voiceless stops as voiceless aspirates. Though we cannot say for certain on the basis of this study whether voiced aspirates existed in Proto-Indo-European at the time of contact with Northwest Caucasian languages, there is nothing to indicate that they did. Indeed, the most straightforward explanation is that voiced aspirates arose at a later date in the Disintegrating Indo-European dialects that gave rise to Indo-Iranian, Armenian, Greek, and Italic. Nevertheless, for the sake of conformity with the traditional reconstruction of the Proto-Indo-European consonant system, voiced aspirates are shown in the Proto-Indo-European forms used in the comparison with Northwest Caucasian.

Another important insight that can be gleaned from this study is that the Pre-Proto-Indo-European morphological system changed dramatically as a result of contact with Northwest Caucasian languages — in certain respects, it became more complicated. At the same time, some of the earlier morphology must have been lost. In his 2002 book entitled *Pre-Indo-European*, Winfred P. Lehmann suggested that three endings represented the most ancient layer of the Proto-Indo-European case system — these endings were: **-s*, **-m*, and **-H* (= ** ʔ*). According to Lehmann, **-s* indicated an individual and, when used in clauses, identified the agent; **-m* used in clauses indicated the target; and **-H* supplied a collective meaning. Lehmann further maintains that the remaining case endings were based upon earlier adverbial particles that came to be incorporated into the case system over time. That this has indeed taken place is especially clear in the case of the dual and plural endings in **-b^{hi}-* and **-mo-*, which were incorporated into the Proto-Indo-European case system after Hittite and the other Anatolian daughter languages had split from the main speech community. This study indirectly corroborates Lehmann's views, though details of how and when the individual case endings traditionally reconstructed for Proto-Indo-European arose still need to be worked out — it may be noted that a good start has recently been made in this direction by the Czech scholar Václav Blažek (2014) and, before him, by Beekes (1985), Haudry (1982), Kim (2010), Kuryłowicz (1964), Shields (1982), and Specht (1944), among others (see also Kulikov 2012).

This paper is only a beginning. More rigorous studies must be undertaken to determine the extent to which Pre-Proto-Indo-European was transformed through contact with Northwest Caucasian from a typical Eurasiatic language to the proto-language reconstructed in the standard handbooks on the basis of a direct comparison of the extant daughter languages. The improved understanding of the complex origins of Proto-Indo-European that will emerge from these studies will provide a more solid basis for comparison with other languages.

The remainder of this paper lists the potential lexical parallels I have uncovered to date between Proto-Indo-European and Northwest Caucasian (it includes several lexical parallels previously proposed by Colarusso). The Abkhaz entries are taken from Chirikba's 1996 book *A Dictionary of Common Abkhaz*, and the Circassian entries are from Kuipers' 1975 book *A Dictionary of Proto-Circassian Roots*. Several other

works have also been consulted. The Indo-European material is taken from the standard etymological dictionaries listed in the references at the end of this paper. The Proto-Indo-European reconstructions are in accordance with the Glottalic Model of Proto-Indo-European consonantism.

Notes:

1. Since the sole purpose of this study is to show that there was “prolonged and substantial contact between Proto-Indo-European and Northwest Caucasian”, no attempt has been made to trace the prehistoric development of either Proto-Indo-European or Proto-Northwest Caucasian here. For Indo-European, good places to start are Lehmann’s 2002 book *Pre-Indo-European*, the writings of Frederik Kortlandt (2010a), and Gamkrelidze—Ivanov’s 1995 two-volume monograph *Indo-European and the Indo-Europeans: A Reconstruction and Historical Typological Analysis of a Protolanguage and a Proto-Culture*, and for Northwest Caucasian, Chirikba’s 2015 paper “From North to North-West”, together with Colarusso’s 1975 Ph.D. dissertation *The Northwest Caucasian Languages: A Phonological Survey* (republished in 2014, with corrections and emendations) and his 1989 paper “Proto-Northwest Caucasian (or How to Crack a Very Hard Nut)”.
2. One of the principal points made in Chirikba’s 2015 paper “From North to North-West” is that Northwest Caucasian was transformed over time from a typical North Caucasian branch to a separate phylum in its own right — one that was markedly different from the branch(es) that went on to form the Northeast Caucasian languages. Here, one cannot help thinking that the contact between Pre-Proto-Indo-European and Pre-Proto-Northwest Caucasian might have had an equally transformative effect (“contact-induced language change”) on what was to become Proto-Northwest Caucasian.
3. It is beyond the scope of this study to delve into the question of the genetic relationship between Northwest and Northeast Caucasian. Here again, see Chirikba’s paper mentioned above (together with the references cited therein) as well as Sergej A. Starostin and Sergej L. Nikolayev’s 1994 monograph *A North Caucasian Etymological Dictionary*, especially the Introduction.
4. Sergej Starostin published a paper in Russian in 1988 (republished in English in 2009) with a somewhat similar goal but using different data and including both Northwest and Northeast Caucasian (mostly Northeast Caucasian). One of his conclusions, in particular, agrees with that reached in this study and is worth repeating:

Although between the PNC [Proto-North Caucasian] and PIE [Proto-Indo-European] systems sufficiently regular phonetic correspondences can be established, the character of the shared vocabulary does not eliminate doubts that the common character of these lexemes is not the result of an original kinship but rather the result of borrowings...

However, the current study differs from Starostin’s findings in that it shows that it was specifically Proto-Northwest Caucasian or, better put, what was to become Proto-Northwest Caucasian that was in prolonged and substantial contact with Proto-Indo-European and not Proto-Northeast Caucasian and certainly not Proto-North Caucasian.

5. Many of the conclusions reached in this paper were foreseen by Uhlenbeck.

LEXICAL PARALLELS BETWEEN PROTO-INDO-EUROPEAN AND NORTHWEST CAUCASIAN

1. Proto-Indo-European **Ae+wo-* [**Aa+wo-*] (> **awo-*) ‘this, that’: Sanskrit (gen. dual) *avóh* ‘those two’; Avestan *ava-* ‘that’; Old Persian *ava-* ‘that’, (adv.) *avā* ‘thus’; Old Church Slavic *овъ* ‘someone, someone else, other’; Old Czech *ov* ‘that’; Slovenian *óv* ‘this, that’; Bulgarian *óvi* ‘that’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **wa:* South Abkhaz *wa* ‘there’; Ashkharywa *wa* ‘there’. Also **wa* ‘this’ in, for example, **w-aqó* ‘tonight’ (< **wa* ‘this’ + **aqa* ‘night’): Bzyb *waxá* ‘tonight’; Abzhywa *waxá* ‘tonight’; Ashkharywa *woqa* ‘tonight’; Abaza/Tapanta *waqá* ‘tonight’. Common Abkhaz **wó-jə:* South Abkhaz *wəj* ‘this, that; he, she’; Ashkharywa *wəj* ‘this, that; he, she’. Common

Abkhaz **wə-tə*: South Abkhaz *wət* ‘they’; Ashkharywa *wət* ‘they’. Common Abkhaz **a-wa*: Abaza/Tapanta *awa* ‘that’.

2. Proto-Indo-European **ǵabh-* ‘father, forefather, man’ (**ǵ* = **ǵ₁*): Gothic *aba* ‘man, husband’; Old Icelandic *aʒi* ‘grand-father, man’; Old English personal names *Aba*, *Abba*, *Afa*; Old High German personal name *Abo*.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **abá*: South Abkhaz *ab* ‘father’; Ashkharywa *ába* ‘father’; Abaza/Tapanta *ába/abá* ‘father’.

3. Proto-Indo-European **ǵan(n)o-s*, **ǵan(n)i-s*, **ǵan(n)a* ‘mother’ (**ǵ* = **ǵ₁*) (also **na-na-* ‘mother’): Luwian (nom. sg.) *an-ni-iš*, *a-an-ni-iš* ‘mother’; Hittite (nom. sg.) *an-na-aš* ‘mother’; Palaic (nom. sg.) *an-na-aš* ‘mother’; Lycian (nom. sg.) *ēni* ‘mother’; Lydian (nom. sg.) *ēnaś* ‘mother’; Latin *anna* ‘foster-mother’; Greek (Hesychius) ἀννίς: ‘grand-mother’, νάννα, νάννας ‘aunt’; Sanskrit *nanā* familiar expression for ‘mother’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **n(a)* ‘mother’: Bžedux *nə*, *yāna* ‘mother’, *nāna* ‘mamma, granny’; Kabardian *hana* ‘mother’, *nāna* ‘mamma, granny’. Common Abkhaz **anə*: South Abkhaz *an* ‘mother’; Ashkharywa *an* ‘mother’, (indefinite sg.) *anə-k*; Abaza/Tapanta *anə* ‘mother’.

4. Proto-Indo-European demonstrative stem **ǵe-/ǵo-*, **ǵey-/ǵoy-/ǵi-* (< **ǵe-/ǵo-+y/i-*) ‘this, that’ (**ǵ* = **ǵ₁*): Hittite enclitic demonstrative particle (nom. sg.) *-aš*, (acc. sg.) *-an*, (n. sg.) *-at* ‘he, she, it’; (dat. sg.) *e-di*, *i-di*, *e-da-ni* ‘to or for him, her, it’; Sanskrit *ayám* ‘this’ (gen. sg. m./n. *a-syá*, *á-sya*; f. *a-syáḥ*), *idám* ‘this’, (f.) *iyám* ‘she, this’, *á-taḥ* ‘from this, hence’ (< **e-to-s*), (n.) *e-tát* ‘this, this here’, *ihá* ‘here’, *e-śá* (f. *e-śā*) ‘this’; Old Persian *a-* ‘this’, *aita-* ‘this’, *ima-* ‘this’, *iyam* ‘this’, *iḍā* ‘here’; Avestan *a-* ‘this’, *aētaṭ* ‘this’, *ima-* ‘this’, *iḍa* ‘here’; Latin *is*, *ea*, *id* ‘he, she, it; this or that person or thing’; Oscan *eiso-* ‘this’; Old Irish *é* ‘he, they’, *ed* ‘it’; Gothic anaphoric pronoun *is* ‘he’, *ita* ‘it’; Old Icelandic relative particle *es* (later *er*) ‘who, which, what’; Old Saxon *et*, *it* ‘it’; Old High German *er*, *ir* ‘he’, *ez*, *iz* ‘it’; Lithuanian *jis* (< **is*) ‘he’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **a* demonstrative pronoun: ‘this’ (only in compounds) (this is but a sampling): Common Abkhaz **a-bá* ‘this’; Common Abkhaz **a-bá-tə* ‘these’; Common Abkhaz **a-ba-ná* ‘there’; Common Abkhaz **a-ba-rá* ‘here’; Common Abkhaz **a-bá-ra-t(ə)* ‘these’; Common Abkhaz **a-ba-rə-jə* ‘this’; Common Abkhaz **a-də-na* ‘something, this, that’; Common Abkhaz **á-tə* ‘these’; Common Abkhaz **á-ha* ‘here (it is)’; Common Abkhaz **a-ma-ná* ‘there’; Common Abkhaz **a-ma-nə-jə* ‘that’; Common Abkhaz **a-ná* ‘there’; Common Abkhaz **a-rá* ‘here’; Common Abkhaz **a-wa* ‘that’; etc.

5. Proto-Indo-European **ǵebh-r-* (?) ‘male of small hoofed animals’ (**ǵ* = **ǵ₁*): Thracian ἔβρος: ‘buck’ (ἔβρος: τράγος, βάτης· καὶ ποταμὸς Θράκης). Proto-Germanic **eburaz* ‘wild boar’ > Old Icelandic *jöfurr* ‘wild boar; (meta-phorically) king, warrior’; Old English *eofor*, *eofur* ‘boar, wild boar’; Old High German *ebur* ‘wild boar’.

Notes:

1. The above forms are usually compared with some-what similar forms in Italic and Balto-Slavic: (A) Italic: Latin *aper* ‘wild boar’; Umbrian (acc. sg.) **abrunu** ‘boar’ (the Umbrian form refers specifically to domestic boars offered as a sacrifice). The Proto-Italic form was probably **apro-* or **aprōn-*. (B) Balto-Slavic: Latvian *vepris* ‘castrated boar’; Old Church Slavic *veprь* ‘boar’; Russian *vepr* [вепрь] ‘wild boar’; Czech *vepr* ‘pig’.
2. The attested forms have been remodeled in each of the daughter languages, making it difficult to reconstruct the Proto-Indo-European form.
3. For the semantic correlation between the Indo-European and Abkhaz forms, cf. Greek κάπρος ‘boar, wild boar’ ~ Latin *caper* ‘he-goat, buck’; Old Icelandic *hافر* ‘buck, he-goat’; Faroese *havur* ‘billy-goat’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Abkhaz **abə*: South Abkhaz *ab* ‘(castrated) he-goat’, (indef. sg.) *abə-k*; Ashkharywa *ab* ‘(castrated) he-goat’; Abaza/Tapanta *ab* ‘(castrated) he-goat’, (indef. sg.) *abə-k*. Note also South Abkhaz *abəznəzə* ‘male goat half a year old’ (< **abə* ‘he-goat’, **za-nə* ‘one’, **ažə* ‘old’).

6. Proto-Indo-European **ǵen-* ‘in, into, among, on’ (**ǵ = *ǵ₁*): Greek *ἐν*, *ἐνι*, *ἐνί* ‘in, on, among, into, and besides’; Latin *in* (Old Latin *en*) ‘in, on, among, into, on to, towards, against’; Oscan *en* ‘in’; Old Irish *ini-*, *en-*, *in-* ‘in, into’; Welsh *in* ‘in’; Breton *en* ‘in’; Gothic *in* ‘in, into, among, by’, *inn* ‘into’; Old Icelandic *i* ‘in, within, among’, *inn* ‘in, into’; Old English *in* ‘in, on, among, into, during’, *inn* ‘in’; Old Frisian *in* ‘in’; Old Saxon *in* ‘in’; Old High German *in* ‘in’; Old Prussian *en* ‘inside, within’; Old Church Slavonic *въ(н)* ‘in(to)’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **nə*: South Abkhaz *a-nə-z-aa-ra* ‘to be (on something)’; Common Abkhaz **nə* locative in **nə-já*: South Abkhaz *a-n-já-ra* ‘to happen, to meet’; Abaza/Tapanta *n-já-rá* ‘to happen, to meet’. Also note *-nə* ‘place, country’ in, for example: Abzhywa *aps-nə* ‘Abkhazia’; Sadz *aps-nə* ‘Abkhazia’; Ahchypsy *aps-nə* ‘Abkhazia’.

7. Proto-Indo-European **ǵep^h-/*ǵop^h-* ‘to take, to grab’ (**ǵ = *ǵ₁*): Latin *apīscor* ‘to seize, to grasp; to get, to obtain’, *apīō* ‘to tie, to fasten’; Hittite (3rd sg. pres. act.) *e-ep-zi* ‘to take, to seize, to grab, to pick, to capture’; Sanskrit *āpnóti* ‘to reach, to overtake’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **apə-š’ə*: Bzyp *apə-š’-ra* ‘to connect, to bind’; Abaza/Tapanta *ap-š’ə-l-ra* ‘to connect, to bind’ (*j-apə-l-š’ə-l-l* ‘she connected it’).

8. Proto-Indo-European **ǵet^hi* (< **ǵe+*t^hi*) ‘out, beyond’ (**ǵ = *ǵ₁*): Sanskrit *āti* ‘beyond, over’; Greek *ἐτι* ‘yet, as yet, still; further, moreover, besides; hereafter’; Latin *et* ‘and’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **ta* ‘from inside out; from below, upwards’: Abaza/Tapanta *t-* in, for example, *t-ga-ra* ‘to drag something out’ (cf. *ga-rá* ‘to carry, to bring, to take’).

9. Proto-Indo-European **ǵey-/*ǵoy-/*ǵi-* ‘to go’ (**ǵ = *ǵ₁*): Greek (1st sg. pres.) *εἶμι* ‘I go’, (1st pl. pres.) *ἵμεν* ‘we go’; Sanskrit (1st sg. pres.) *émi* ‘I go’, (3rd sg. pres.) *éti* ‘goes’, (1st pl. pres.) *imāḥ* ‘we go’, (3rd pl. pres.) *yānti* ‘they go’, (3rd sg. pres.) *yāti* ‘goes, moves, rides’; Latin (1st sg. pres.) *eō* ‘I go’; Old Lithuanian (3rd sg. pres.) *eiti* ‘goes’; Old Prussian (3rd sg. pres.) *ēit* ‘goes’, *per-ēit* ‘comes’; Old Church Slavonic *idq, iti* ‘to go’; Luwian (3rd sg. pres.) *i-ti* ‘goes’; Hittite (imptv.) *i-it* ‘go!’; Tocharian A (1st pl.) *ymās* ‘we go’, B (1st sg.) *yam, yam* ‘I go’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **jə*: Abaza/Tapanta *há-j-ra* ‘to come’, *na-j-ra* ‘to go’ (*na-* ‘thither’); South Abkhaz *áá-j-ra* ‘to come’, *a-ná-j-ra* ‘to go’.

10. Proto-Indo-European **ǵey-/*ǵoy-* ‘of variegated color’ (**ǵ = *ǵ₁*): Sanskrit *éta-h* ‘(adj.) shining, of variegated color; (n. m.) a kind of antelope’, *eni-h* ‘black antelope’. Also used in various tree names: Greek *οἴη, ὄη, ὄα* ‘the service-tree’; Old Irish *éó* ‘yew-tree’; Old Saxon (pl.) *īchas* ‘yew-tree’; Old High German *īgo* ‘yew-tree’; Lithuanian *ievà* ‘bird-cherry tree’; Russian Church Slavonic *iva* ‘willow-tree’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **aja*: South Abkhaz *aja* ‘pallid, dim, wan (color)’ (arch.).

11. Proto-Indo-European **ǵoy-* ‘single, alone, solitary; one’ (with non-apophonic *-o-*) (extended forms: (A) **ǵoy-no-*, (B) *ǵoy-wo-*, (C) **ǵoy-k^ho-*) (**ǵ = *ǵ₁*):

A. **ǵoy-no-*: Latin *ūnus* ‘one’ [Old Latin *oinos*]; Old Irish *óen, óin* ‘one’; Gothic *ains* ‘one’; Old Icelandic *einn* ‘one’; Old English *ān* ‘one; alone, sole, lonely; singular, unique’; Old Saxon *ēn* ‘one’; Old High German *ein* ‘one’; Lithuanian *vienas* (with unexplained initial *v-*) ‘one; alone’; Old Prussian *ains* ‘one’; Old Church Slavonic *инъ* ‘some(one), other’; Russian Church Slavonic *inokyj*

‘only, sole, solitary’; Russian *inój* [ино́й] ‘different, other’ — it is also found in Greek οἷνη, οἷνός ‘roll of one (in dice)’.

B. **ʔoy-wo-*: Avestan *aēva-* ‘one’; Old Persian *aiva-* ‘one’ — it is also found in Greek οἶος ‘alone, lone, lonely’ (Cyprian οἶφος).

C. **ʔoy-kʰo-*: Sanskrit *éka-h* ‘one’; Mitanni (“Proto-Indic”) *aika-* ‘one’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **ajába*: Abzhywa *ájba* ‘orphan’; Bzyp *ájba* (indef. sg. *ajbák*), *ajbá* ‘orphan’; Abaza/Tapanta *jába* (indef. sg. *jába-k*) ‘orphan’. In South Abkhaz, also ‘widow’.

12. Proto-Indo-European **ʔyo-* relative pronoun stem (**ʔ* = **ʔ₁*): Greek ὅς, ἧ, ὅ ‘which’; Phrygian ιος ‘which; this’; Sanskrit *yá-h* ‘which’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **ja-* relative/interrogative stem in: **ja(-rá)* ‘he (male/human); it (non-human); this, the very same’; **ja-wá(-ja)* ‘why?’; **j-an-b-ákʰo* ‘when?’: South Abkhaz *ja-rá* ‘he (male/human); it (non-human); this, the very same’; Ashkharywa *ja-rá* ‘he; it; this, the very same’; Abaza/Tapanta *ja-rá* ‘he; it; this, the very same’. Bzyp *j-an-bə-kʰo* ‘when?’; Abaza/Tapanta *j-an-b-ákʰo-w* ‘when?’. Bzyp *jawá(j)* ‘why?’; Abaza/Tapanta *jawá* ‘why?’.

13. Proto-Indo-European **bʰē̃*/**bʰō̃* emphatic particle: Gothic *ba* (encl. ptc.) ‘if, even though’; Avestan *bā* ‘truly’; Greek φη ‘as, like as’; Lithuanian *bà* ‘yes, certainly’; Old Church Slavic *bo* ‘for’; Russian (dial.) *bo* [bo] ‘if, for, because’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **ba*: South Abkhaz *ba* interrogative particle used in echo-questions, as in *d-aá-j-t* ‘he came’ ~ *d-aá-j-t* *ba?* ‘did he?’ // ‘are you saying that he has come?’; it also occurs, for example, in *j-abá* ‘where?’ (<*j(ə)* ‘it’ + **a* deixis of place + **ba* interrogative element) and *j-an-bá* ‘when?’ (<**an* ‘when’ + **ba* interrogative element).

14. Proto-Indo-European **bʰen-* ‘to slay, to wound’: Gothic *banja* ‘strike, blow, wound’; Old Icelandic (f.) *ben* ‘mortal wound; small bleeding wound’; Old English *bana* ‘killer, slayer, murderer’, *benn* ‘wound, mortal injury’; Old High German *banō* ‘death, destruction’; Avestan *ban-* ‘to make ill, to afflict’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **ban(a)* ‘to fight’: Bžedux *ya-ban* ‘to fight’; Kabardian *bāna*, *ya-ban* ‘to fight’.

15. Proto-Indo-European **bʰer-/bʰor-/bʰy-* ‘to make a sound, to hum, to buzz, to mutter’: Sanskrit *bambhara-h* ‘bee’, *bambharālī-* ‘fly’; Armenian *bor* ‘bumble-bee, hornet’; Greek πεμφορηδών ‘a kind of wasp’; Lithuanian *barbėti* ‘to jingle, to clink’, *birbiū*, *birbiaū*, *biṛti* ‘to play a reed(-pipe)/flute’, *burbiū*, *burbėti* ‘to mutter, to mumble, to grumble’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **bar-bár*: South Abkhaz *a-barbár-ra* ‘(to) chatter, jabber; babble’. Common Abkhaz **bər-bər* (a variant of **bar-bár*): Abzhywa *d-bər-bər-wa* ‘be grumbling’; Abaza/Tapanta (adv.) *bər-bər-ḥʷa* (adv.) ‘growling, grumbling’.

16. Proto-Indo-European **bʰes-/bʰos-* ‘to breathe, to blow’: Sanskrit *bhas-* ‘to breathe, to blow’ in: *bhásma-h*, *bhásman-* ‘ashes’, *bhāsmana-h* ‘made of or consisting of ashes, ashy’, *bhasita-h* ‘reduced to ashes’, *bhastrā* ‘leather bag, bellows’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **bza*: South Abkhaz *a-bzá* ‘alive’, *a-bzá-za-ra* ‘life’; Abaza/Tapanta *bza* ‘alive’, *bzá-za-ra* ‘life’.

17. Proto-Indo-European **bʰewH-/bʰowH-/bʰuH-* (> **bʰū-*) ‘to come into being, to become, to arise’: Sanskrit *bhávati* ‘to become, to be, to arise, to come into being, to exist’, *bhūti-h*, *bhūti-h* ‘well-being, prosperity, wealth, fortune’; Greek φύω ‘to bring forth, to produce, to put forth; to grow, to increase, to spring up, to arise’; Latin (perfect) *fuī* ‘to be, to exist’; Old English *bēon* ‘to be, to exist, to become, to

happen'; Old Frisian (1st sg. pres.) *bim* '(I) am'; Old Saxon (1st sg. pres.) *bium, biom* '(I) am'; Old High German (1st sg. pres.) *bim* '(I) am' Lithuanian *būti* 'to be, to exist', *būvis* 'existence'; Old Church Slavic *byti* 'to be'; Russian *byt'* [быть] 'to be'; Serbo-Croatian *biti* 'to be'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **baw(a)* 'to kiss, to breathe': Bžedux *ya-bawə/bāwa, ya-baw* 'to kiss, to breathe'; Temirgoy *bawa-n* 'to kiss, to breathe'.

18. Proto-Indo-European **b^hewH-/*b^howH-/*b^huH-* (> **b^hū-*) 'to spend (time), to abide, to dwell': Sanskrit *bhāvati* 'to become, to be, to exist, to live, to stay, to abide'; Albanian *buj* 'to spend the night'; Gothic *bauan* 'to dwell, to inhabit'; Old Icelandic *búa* 'to prepare, to make ready; to dress, to attire, to adorn; to fix one's abode in a place; to deal with, to treat; to live, to dwell; to have a household; to be; to behave, to conduct oneself', *bú* 'household, farming', *ból* 'lair', *byggva, byggja* 'to settle in a place'; Old English *būan* 'to dwell, to inhabit, to occupy (house)', *bū* 'dwelling', *bōgian* 'to dwell, to take up one's abode'; Old Frisian *bowa, būwa* 'to dwell', *bōgia* 'to dwell'; Old Saxon *būan* 'to dwell'; Old High German *būan, būwan, būen, būwen* 'to dwell'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **báwra*: South Abkhaz *a-báwra* 'cattle-shed, cow-house'; Abaza/Tapanta *báwra* 'cattle-shed, cow-house, barn'; Sadz *a-bōra* 'cattle-shed, cow-house'.

19. Proto-Indo-European **b^hlend^h-/*b^hlond^h-/*b^hlnd^h-* 'to be or become blind': Gothic *blinds* 'blind', **gabliindjan* 'to make blind', **afblindnan* 'to become blind'; Old Icelandic *blinda* 'to blind', *blindr* 'blind', *blunda* 'to shut the eyes', *blundr* 'dozing, slumber'; Old English *blendan* 'to blind, to deceive', *blind* 'blind'; Old High German *blint* 'blind'; Lithuanian *blendžiū, blęsti* 'to become dark', *blandūs* 'dark, dusky, obscure, gloomy, dismal', *blañdas* 'cloudiness, obscuration of mind or eyesight, drowsiness'; Old Church Slavic *blędō, blęsti* 'to go blindly'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **balā-bata*: South Abkhaz *a-balābata-ra* 'to move with uncertainty'.

20. Proto-Indo-European **b^hlu-, *b^hluH-* (> **b^hlū-*) 'to burn, to blaze, to light up': Old Icelandic *blys* 'torch'; Old High German *bluhhen* 'to burn, to light up'; Old English *blysa* 'torch, fire'; Middle Irish *blosc* 'clear, evident', *bloscad* 'radiance'; Czech *blčeti* 'to flash, to blaze', *blýskati* 'to lighten, to flash'; Polish *błysk* 'lightning'.

Proto-Indo-European **b^hlek'-/*b^hlok'-/*b^hlk'-, *b^helk'-/*b^holk'-/*b^hlk'-* 'to burn, to blaze, to glow': Sanskrit *bhārgas-* 'splendor, radiance'; Greek φλέγω 'to burn, to blaze'; Latin *fulgor* 'lightning', *flagrō* 'to blaze, to burn, to glow'; Old Icelandic *blakkr* 'dusky, black, dun'; Old English *blācern* 'lantern'; Old High German *blah-, blach-* 'black' (in compounds); Old Church Slavic *blagъ* 'good'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **Pla* 'to burn, to shine (intr.)': Bžedux *bla* 'to burn, to shine (intr.)'; Kabardian *bla* 'to burn, to shine (intr.)'. Common Abkhaz **bālā*: South Abkhaz *a-bāl-t'ʔā* 'firewood', *a-bāl-rá* 'to burn, to put into fire'; Abaza/Tapanta *bāl-rá* 'to burn, to put into fire', *blābāl* 'very hot', (reduplicated) *blābāl-ra* 'to be (very) hot; to burn (of a burn)', *a-blā-ra* 'the place of burn, fire'; Ashkharywa *a-bāl-t'á* 'firewood'; Bzyp *a-blā-ra* 'the place of burn, fire'.

21. Proto-Indo-European **b^hr-uH-* (> **b^hrū-*) 'eyelash, eyebrow': Sanskrit *bhrúḥ* 'an eyebrow, the brow'; Greek ὀφρῦς 'the brow, eyebrow'; Middle Irish (gen. dual) *brúad* 'eyebrow'; Old Icelandic *brún* (< **b^hruwōn-*) (pl. *brynn*) 'eyebrow'; Old English *brū* 'eyebrow; eyelid, eyelash'; Lithuanian *bruvīs* 'eyebrow'; Old Church Slavic *brъvъ* 'eyebrow'; Russian *brov'* [бровь] 'eyebrow'; Tocharian A *pārwan-*, B (dual) *pārwane* 'eyebrows'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **bra*: Bzyp *á-bra* 'mane (of a horse)', *a-brá-š* 'tow-haired'; Abaza/Tapanta *bra* 'plait, braid; hair (arch.)', *qa-brá* 'hair' (*qa* 'head').

22. Proto-Indo-European **d^hē-d^hē-* ‘older relative (male or female): grandfather, grandmother; uncle, aunt’: Greek *τήθη* ‘grandmother’, *τητίς* ‘aunt’; Lithuanian *dēdė, dėdis* ‘uncle’; Old Church Slavonic *dědъ* ‘grand-father’; Russian *ded* [дед] ‘grandfather’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **dada*: South Abkhaz *dad* ‘grandfather’, more rarely ‘father’; Ashkharywa *dada* ‘father’; Abaza/Tapanta *dada* ‘grandfather, father’.

23. Proto-Indo-European **d^her-/ *d^hor-/ *d^hṛ-* ‘to hold firmly, to support’, **d^her-mo-s* ‘firm, strong’: Sanskrit *dhārāyati* ‘to hold, to bear, to carry; to hold up, to support, to sustain, to maintain; to carry on; to hold in, to hold back, to keep back, to restrain, to stop, to detain, to curb, to resist; to keep, to possess, to have; to hold fast, to preserve’, *dhārma-h* ‘that which is held fast or kept: ordinance, statute, law, usage, practice, custom, customary observances; religion, piety; prescribed course of conduct, duty’; Old Persian (1st sg.) *dārayāmiy* ‘to hold’; Latin *firmus* ‘strong, steadfast, stable, enduring, powerful’, *firmō* ‘to make firm, to strengthen, to fortify, to sustain; to confirm, to establish, to show, to prove, to declare, to make certain’ (derivative of *firmus*) ; Lithuanian *daraũ, dariaũ, daryti* ‘to do’; Latvian *darīt* ‘to do’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **dāra* ‘strong’: Abaza/Tapanta *dāra* ‘stingy (man)’, *r-dāra-ra* ‘to strengthen’, *dāra* ‘very much’; Bzyp *dāara, daāra, dāra* ‘very (much)’; Ashkharywa *adāra* ‘very (much)’; Sadz *adāra* ‘very (much)’.

24. Proto-Indo-European (extended forms) **d^her-g^h-/ *d^hor-g^h-/ *d^hṛ-g^h-*, **d^her-eg^h-/ *d^hor-og^h-/ *d^hṛ-g^h-* ‘to turn’: Greek *τρέχω* ‘to run, to move quickly’, *τροχός* ‘wheel’, *τρόχος* ‘a running course’, *τροχίος* ‘round’; Armenian *darnam* (< **darjnam*) ‘to turn, to return’, *durn* ‘a potter’s wheel’; Albanian *dredh* ‘to twist, to turn’; Old Irish *droch* ‘wheel’, *dreas* ‘turn, course’. Note: For the semantic development of Greek *τρέχω*, cf. Old Irish *rethid* ‘to run’, *riuth* ‘running’, *roth* ‘wheel’, *rothán* ‘the hair twisted and plaited’ < **re^hH-/ *rot^hH-* ‘to roll, to revolve, to turn’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **darə*: South Abkhaz *á-dar-ra* ‘to spin with a double thread’. Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **da(r)dərə*: South Abkhaz *a-dardə/ a-dərdə* ‘spindle’; Abaza/Tapanta *dadər-y^oə* ‘spindle’.

25. Proto-Indo-European (extended form) **d^hergh^h-*, **d^hreg^h-* ‘thorny plant’: Old Irish *draigen* ‘sloe tree, blackthorn’; Middle Welsh *draen, drain* ‘thornbush, brambles, briars’; Old High German *dirn-baum, tirn-pauma* ‘cornel’; Greek *τέρχνος, τρέχνος* ‘twig, branch’; Russian (dial.) *déren, derén* [дерен] ‘cornel’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **dārə*: Bžedux *a-dar-ra* ‘to sting (of nettle)’.

26. Proto-Indo-European **d^hew-r-yo-s* ‘of great value, cost, prestige, etc.’ (only in Germanic): Proto-Germanic **deurjaz* ‘costly, expensive, valuable’ > Old Icelandic *dýrr* ‘high-priced, costly, expensive, precious’; Old English *dēore, dīere* ‘precious, costly, valuable; noble, excellent’; Old Frisian *diore, diure* ‘costly, expensive’; Old Saxon *diuri* ‘valuable, expensive’; Old High German *tiuri* ‘valuable, expensive’. Proto-Germanic **deurja-līkaz* ‘glorious, excellent’ > Old Icelandic *dýr-ligr* ‘glorious’; Old Saxon *diur-līk* ‘valuable, excellent’; Old High German *tiur-līh* ‘valuable, excellent’. Proto-Germanic **deuripō* ‘glory, fame’ > Old Icelandic *dýrð* ‘glory’; Old Saxon *diuritha* ‘glory, fame’; Old High German *tiurida* ‘glory, fame’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **dəwə*: South Abkhaz *dəw* ‘big, great’; Ashkharywa *dəw* ‘big, great’; Abaza/Tapanta *dəw* ‘big, great’.

27. Proto-Indo-European **d^hmb^h-* ‘burial mound, kurgan’: Greek *τάφος* (< **d^hmb^ho-s*) ‘funeral, burial, the act of burying; burial mound, tomb’, *ταφή* ‘burial, burial-place’, *θάπτω* (< **d^hmb^hyō*) ‘to honor with funeral rites, to bury’; Armenian *damban, dambaran* ‘grave, tomb’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **damrá*: Bzyp *a-dəmrá* ‘grave’; South Abkhaz *a-damrá* ‘grave’; Abaza/Tapanta *damrá* ‘grave’ (only in a proverb).

28. Proto-Indo-European **g^heǵ-/g^hoǵ-* (> **g^hē-/g^hō-*), **g^heǵ-y/i-/g^hoǵ-y/i-* (> **g^hēy-/g^hōy-*; **g^hei-/g^hoi-*) ‘to go, to leave, to depart; to abandon, to forsake’ (**ǵ = *ǵ₁*): Sanskrit (reduplicated) *já-hā-ti* ‘to leave, to abandon, to desert, to quit, to forsake, to relinquish’, (causative) *hāpayati* ‘to cause to leave or abandon; to omit, to neglect; to fall short of, to be wanting’, *hāni-h* ‘abandonment, relinquishment, decrease, diminution; deprivation; damage, loss, failure, ruin; insufficiency, deficit’; Greek (Homeric) (reduplicated) *κίχάνω*, (Attic) *κίγχανω* ‘to reach, hit, or light upon; to meet with, to find; (Homeric) to overtake, to reach, to arrive at’, *χῆρα* (Ionic *χήρη*) ‘bereft of husband, widow’, *χῆρος* ‘widowed, bereaved’, *χώρα* ‘the space in which a thing is’, *χωρέω* ‘to make room for another, to give way, to draw back, to retire, to withdraw; to go forward, to move on or along’, *χῶρος* ‘piece of ground, ground, place’, (adv.) *χωρίς* ‘separately, asunder, apart, by oneself or by themselves’, (dat.) *χῆται* ‘in lack of’, *χατέω* ‘to crave, to long for, to have need of, to lack’, *χαρίζω* ‘to have need of, to crave; to lack, to be without’, *χαρίζων* ‘a needy, poor person’; Latin *hērēs* ‘heir’; Gothic *gaidw* ‘lack’; Crimean Gothic *geen* ‘to go’; Swedish *gå* ‘to go’; Danish *gaa* ‘to go’; Old English *gān* ‘to go, to come, to proceed’, *gād* ‘want, lack’; Old Frisian *gān*, *gēn* ‘to go’; Old Saxon *-gān* in *ful-gān* ‘to accomplish’; Middle Dutch *gaen* ‘to go’; Old High German *gān* ‘to go’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **ga* ‘bad, insufficient, lacking’: Bžedux *-ǵ’a* ‘bad, insufficient, lacking’; Kabardian *-ga* ‘bad, insufficient, lacking’. Common Abkhaz **gə*: South Abkhaz *á-g-ǵa-ra* ‘to lose flesh (tr.), to be late (intr.); to lack something’, *a-g-rá* ‘defect, lack of something’; Abaza/Tapanta *g-ǵa-ra* ‘to lack’.

29. Proto-Indo-European **g^her-/g^hor-/g^hṛ-* ‘to scatter, to strew’: Lithuanian *žyrù*, *žirstu*, *žirti* ‘to scatter, to strew’, *išžirti* ‘to disperse, to scatter, to spread about’. Note: Confused with words meaning ‘to glow, to sparkle, to glitter, etc.’

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **yra*: South Abkhaz *á-yra* ‘speckled, spotted’; Abaza/Tapanta *yra* ‘speckled, spotted’.

30. Proto-Indo-European **g^her-/g^hor-/g^hṛ-* ‘to growl, to wail, to weep, to cry (out)’ (onomatopoeic): Sanskrit *hrādate* ‘to sound’; Latin *hīrriō* ‘to growl’; Armenian *ger* ‘to wail’; Gothic *grētan* ‘to weep, to lament’, *grēts* ‘weeping’; Old Icelandic *gráta* ‘to weep, to bewail’, *grátr* ‘weeping’; Swedish *gråta* ‘to weep’, *gråt* ‘weeping’; Old Saxon *grātan* ‘to weep’; Middle High German *grazen* ‘to cry out, to rage, to storm’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **y’arə-y’arə* (onomatopoeic): South Abkhaz *a-y’ar-y’ár-ra* ‘to rattle, to jingle; sound of beating or striking (against something)’, *a-y’ar-y’ár* ‘rattle, clapper’; Abaza/Tapanta *y’ar-y’ár* ‘rattle, clapper; description of the sound produced by moving transport’.

31. Proto-Indo-European **g^herH-/g^horH-/g^hṛH-* ‘to shake, to move to and fro’, **g^hṛH-no-s* ‘shaking, moving to and fro’: Sanskrit *ghūrṇá-h* ‘shaking, moving to and fro’, *ghūrṇáti*, *ghūrṇate* ‘to move to and fro, to shake, to be agitated, to tremble, to roll about, to cause to whirl, to whirl, to turn around’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **gára*: Bzyp *a-gár* ‘cradle’, *á-gar-čar-ra* ‘to shake’; Abzhywa *a-gára* ‘cradle’; South Abkhaz *a-garə-gača-ra* ‘to waddle’; Abaza/Tapanta *gára* ‘cradle’. Common Abkhaz **garə*: South Abkhaz *á-gər-t’^o*, *á-gər-k’^o(ə)t’a* ‘epilepsy’, *a-gər-ǵá-t’^o* ‘sacrifice offered during prayer against migraine’ (*ǵá-t’^o* ‘sacrifice’), *a-gər-ǵ-nəḥ^oa* ‘prayer against headache, nose bleeding, etc.’ Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **garə-garə*: South Abkhaz *a-gərgər-ra* ‘to waddle’.

32. Proto-Indo-European **g^hey-* ‘snow, ice, winter’: Albanian (Gheg) *dimën*, (Tosk) *dimër* ‘winter’; Hittite (nom. sg.) *gi-im-ma-an-za* ‘winter’; Armenian *jmerñ* ‘winter’; Greek χιών ‘snow; snow-water, ice-cold water’, χειμα ‘winter-weather, cold, frost’, χειμών ‘winter; wintry weather, a winter storm’; Sanskrit *himá-h* ‘snow, frost, hoar-frost, winter’, *hemantá-h* ‘winter, the cold season’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **gəya* ‘smooth (of ice)’; Kabardian *məl-gay* ‘smooth (of ice)’ (*məl* ‘ice’).

33. Proto-Indo-European **g^hi-* enclitic particle of unknown meaning: Sanskrit *hi* enclitic particle: ‘for, because, on account of; assuredly, certainly; indeed’; Greek -χι in: οὐ-χί, μή-χι ‘not’, ναί-χι ‘yea, verily; aye, yes’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **-g’ə*: Abkhaz *-g’ə* ‘and, even, too’, as in *wəj-g’ə* ‘he/she too’.

34. Proto-Indo-European (extended form) **g^hl-ey-/g^hl-oy-/g^hl-i-* ‘to glide, to slip, to slide; to be unstable, to totter’: Swedish *glinta* ‘to glide, to slip’; Old English *glīdan* ‘to glide, to slip; to glide away, to vanish’, *glidder* ‘slippery’, *gliddrian* ‘to slip, to be unstable’, *glīd* ‘slippery, ready to slide; tottering’; Old Frisian *glīda* ‘to glide’; Old Saxon *glīdan* ‘to glide’; Dutch *glijden* ‘to glide’; Old High German *glītan* ‘to glide, to slip’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **g’al(a)* ‘to slip, to (slip and) fall’: Bžedux *ʒ’āla* ‘to slip, to (slip and) fall’; Kabardian *gala* ‘to slip, to (slip and) fall’. Common Abkhaz **g’alá*: South Abkhaz *á-g’ala-ra* ‘to swing, to reel, to stagger; to gad about’; Ashkharywa *g’ala-ra* ‘to idle, to loaf’. Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **g’alá-g’alá*: South Abkhaz *a-g’alg’ala-rá* ‘to dangle’. Common Abkhaz **g’al-dázə*: Bžyp *a-g’aldáz* ‘idle, lounge; awkward, clumsy’; South Abkhaz *á-g’aldəz-ra* ‘to idle, to loaf; to droop, to dangle (of something heavy)’.

35. Proto-Indo-European **g^her-* ‘hail’ (unattested): (extended form) **g^hr-eH-t-* ‘hail’: Old Church Slavic *gradъ* ‘hail’; Czech (nom. pl.) *hrady* ‘thundercloud’; Polish *grad* ‘hail’; Russian *grad* [град] ‘hail’; Serbo-Croatian *grād* ‘hail’; Bulgarian *grad* ‘hail’; (?) Sanskrit *hrādīni-h* ‘hail(-stone)’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **γər-ʒə*: South Abkhaz *á-γər-ʒ* ‘drizzle, drizzling rain’ (**ʒə* ‘water’), *á-la-ʒər-ʒ* ‘tear’ (**la* ‘eye’); Abaza/ Tapanta *γər-ʒə* ‘drizzle, drizzling rain’, *γər-ʒ-ra* ‘to drizzle’.

36. Proto-Indo-European **g^{wh}erH-/g^{wh}orH-/g^{wh}rH-* ‘to turn around, to revolve, to roll; to move to and fro’ (only in Indo-Aryan): Sanskrit *ghūrṇāti*, *ghūrṇate* ‘to move to and fro, to shake, to be agitated, to tremble; to roll about, to cause to whirl, to turn around’, *ghūrṇita-h* ‘rolling, turning, tossing’, *ghūrṇamāna-h* ‘being agitated, shaking, trembling; revolving, turning around’; Prakrit *ghulāi* ‘to turn’, *ghamghōra* ‘constantly turning’, *ghummai* ‘to turn around’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **g’ərg’ərlə* ‘round object’ (> ‘wheel, hoop; ring; etc.’); Abaza/Tapanta *g’ərg’ər* ‘ring (of chain, chain armor, etc.); small metal wheel’; South Abkhaz *a-g’ərg’əl* ‘wheel, hoop’, *a-g’ərg’əl mač’əz* ‘wedding-ring’.

37. Proto-Indo-European **g^{wh}or-o-* ‘open area set aside as a public space’ (only in Italic): Latin *forum* ‘an open square, marketplace, public space’; Umbrian (acc. sg.) *furo*, **furu** ‘forum’. Note: Latin *forum* is usually (though not always) derived from Proto-Indo-European **d^hwōr-* ‘door’ (cf. Latin *foris* ‘door’). However, the semantic development required to get from ‘door’ to *forum* seems rather contrived.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **g’ára*: Bžyp *a-g’ár(a)* ‘yard’; Abzhywa *a-g’ára* ‘yard; cattle-yard; fence’; Ashkharywa (Apsua) *a-g’ára* ‘wattled fence’; Abaza/Tapanta *g’ára* ‘fence’. Common Abkhaz **g’ár-pə* (< **g’ára* ‘court, yard’, **pə* ‘nose’ > ‘front; before’): South Abkhaz *a-g’árp* ‘part of big yard around the house’.

38. Proto-Indo-European **g^{wh}ḱ-k^h-* ‘round, pointed object’ (only in Latin): Latin *furca* ‘a two-pronged fork, pitchfork; any forked-shaped object; a two-pronged instrument of torture used to punish criminals — it was put over the neck, and the arms were tied to the two ends’, *furcifer* ‘one who is forced to wear the *furca* as punishment’, *furcula* ‘a forked-shaped prop’, *furcilla* ‘a little fork or pitchfork’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **g^oərə*: South Abkhaz *a-g^oər* ‘needle’; Abaza/Tapanta *g^oər* ‘needle’. Perhaps also Proto-Circassian **g^oərğə* ‘kingpin’: Temirgoy *g^oərğə* ‘kingpin of a cart’; Kabardian *g^oərğ* ‘kingpin of a cart’.

39. Proto-Indo-European **g^{wh}rem-/ *g^{wh}rom-/ *g^{wh}rēm-* ‘to roar, to growl, to howl, to rage’: Latin *fremō* ‘to roar, to murmur, to growl, to rage, to snort, to howl’; Old English *grimman* ‘to rage, to fret, to roar, to cry out, to grunt’; Old Saxon *grimman* ‘to rage’; Old High German *grimmen* ‘to rage, to yell’. Note: The Latin form could be from Proto-Indo-European **b^hrem-/ *b^hrom-/ *b^hrēm-* ‘to roar, to growl, to howl’ instead (derivative of **b^her-/ *b^hor-/ *b^hr-* ‘to make a sound, to hum, to buzz, to mutter’ listed above).

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **g^o(ə)rāmə*: South Abkhaz *a-g^orām-ra* ‘to grumble, to mumble’; Abaza/Tapanta *g^orām* ‘moan, groan’, *g^orām-ra* ‘to moan, to groan; to moo, to bellow (of animals)’.

40. Proto-Indo-European **hel-* [**hal-*] ‘alder’ (**h* = **ǵ₄*): Latin *alnus* (< Proto-Italic **alsno-*) ‘alder’; Old Icelandic *öl* ‘alder-tree’; Old English *alor* ‘alder’; Old High German *elira* ‘alder’; Russian *ольха* [ol’xa] ‘alder(-tree)’; Lithuanian *alksnis, elksnis*, (dial.) *alisknis* ‘alder’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **alə*: Abaza/Tapanta *al-č’ə*, *al-č’ə*, (indef. sg.) *al-č’ə-k* ‘alder(-tree)’; South Abkhaz *ál(-c’la)* ‘alder(-tree)’; Ashkarywa *al-t’a* ‘alder(-tree)’; Bzyp (indef. sg.) *l-k’ə* // *lə-k* ‘alder(-tree)’.

41. Proto-Indo-European **hep^h-* [**hap^h-*]/**hop^h-* ‘to embark upon, to undertake, to start doing something’ (**h* = **ǵ₄*): Old Icelandic *efna* (< Proto-Germanic **aþnjanan*) ‘to perform, to fulfill’, *efni* ‘material, stuff’; Old English *efnan* ‘to carry out, to perform, to fulfill’, *efne* ‘material’; Old High German *uoben* ‘to start to work, to practice, to worship’; Sanskrit *āpas-* ‘work, action; sacred act, sacrificial act’, *āpas-* ‘religious ceremony’, *āpnas-* ‘work, sacrificial act’; Latin *opus* ‘work’.

Notes:

1. The material from the daughter languages pointing to a Proto-Indo-European root meaning ‘wealth, riches’, though often compared with the above forms, appears to belong to a different root: **Hop^h-* (**H* = a laryngeal preserved in Hittite, most likely **ǵ₃* here [cf. Hittite (adj.) *happina-* ‘rich’; Latin *ops* ‘wealth, power’, *opulentus* ‘rich, wealthy; powerful, mighty’; Sanskrit *āpnas-* ‘possession, property’ (same form as given above, but with a different meaning); Avestan *afnahvant-* ‘rich in property’]) (cf. Kloekhorst 2008b:296—297; Mayrhofer 1986—2001.I:88; De Vaan 2008:431).
2. Greek ἄφενος ‘riches, wealth, plenty’ is best explained as a borrowing.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **āps’ə/a-*: Abzhywa *āps’-ga-ra* ‘to venture, to undertake, to start doing something’; Bzyp *āps’a-ga-ra* ‘to venture, to undertake, to start doing something; to decide, to resolve’ (~ **ga* ‘to bring, to carry’).

42. Proto-Indo-European **hep^h-elo-* [**hap^h-elo-*] ‘strength, power’ (**h* = **ǵ₄*): Greek (Hesych.) (**ἄπελος* ‘strength’ >) ἄν-απελάσας ἄναρρωσθεῖς ‘weak-ness’; Old Icelandic *afl* ‘strength, power, might’, *efla* ‘to strengthen’, *efling* ‘growth, increase in strength and wealth’; Faroese *alv, alvi* ‘strength, power’; Norwegian (dial.) *avl* ‘physical strength’; Swedish *avel* ‘strength’; Old English *afo* ‘power, might’; Old Saxon *aþal* ‘power’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **ápš'ə* 'big, strong, powerful': South Abkhaz *abaš'o-aps'* 'the strong rock', *azaar(*a)-aps'* 'terrible anger', *a-k'aamet-aps'* 'horror, doomsday', *agaž(*a)-aps'* 'bally idiot', *adaw(*ə)-aps'* 'monstrous giant', *á-mat-aps'* 'a very venomous snake'; Abaza/Tapanta *q'abard-ápš'/q'abárd-aps'* 'the Great Kabarda'.

43. Proto-Indo-European (extended form) **hep^h-s-* [**hap^h-s-*]/**hop^h-s-* (vb.) 'to cut, to split'; (n.) 'that which cuts, splits' (> 'sword' in Tocharian B); 'cut, split' (> 'harm, injury; damage' in Avestan) (**h* = **ǵ*₄): Tocharian B *apsāl* 'sword'; Avestan *afša-*, *afšman-* 'harm, injury; damage'.

Notes:

1. The following forms have also been compared with the above: Lithuanian *opà* 'wound, sore', *opūs*, *opus* 'sensitive, susceptible to pain'; Sanskrit *apvā* 'name of a disease'.
2. According to Eric P. Hamp (1965a), the laryngeal **ǵ*₄ is preserved initially in Albanian. If this is indeed the case, as Hamp claims, then Albanian *hap* 'to open' may be a derivative of the unextended Proto-Indo-European verb **hep^h-* [**hap^h-*]/**hop^h-* (vb.) 'to cut, to split', though this is not the etymology suggested by Hamp (1965a:125).

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **ápša*: Bzyp *ápša* 'bayonet, spear, lance', (possessive) *s-ápša* 'my bayonet'; Abzhywa *ápša* 'bayonet, spear, lance'; Abaza/Tapanta *h'o-aps* 'bayonet'. Note: The following alternative forms are also recorded: Bzyp *abs*; Abzhywa *absá*.

44. Proto-Indo-European **hew-* [**haw-*] 'and, but, also' (**h* = **ǵ*₄): Gothic *auk* 'but, also'; Old English *ēac* 'and, also'; Latin *aut* 'either...or', *au-tem* 'but, on the other hand, indeed'; Oscan *aut* 'but, or'; Greek αὐ 'again, on the contrary'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **hawa* 'but': Kabardian *hawa* 'but'.

45. Proto-Indo-European **hey-* [**hay-*] 'to give, to divide, to distribute' (**h* = **ǵ*₄): Hittite (3rd pres. sg.) *pa-a-i* 'to give' (< **pe-+ai-*); Tocharian A (inf.) *essi*, B (inf.) *aitsi* 'to give'; Greek (poet.) αἰνυμαι 'to take'. Proto-Indo-European **hey-t^ho-* [**hay-t^ho-*], **hey-t^hi-* [**hay-t^hi-*] 'part, portion, share' (**h* = **ǵ*₄): Avestan *aēta-* 'the appropriate part'; Greek αἶσα (< *αἰτή) 'a share in a thing; one's lot, destiny; the decree, dispensation of a god'; Oscan (gen. sg.) *aeteis* 'part'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **aj-g(')-ǵá*: Bzyp *áj-g-ǵa-ra* 'to share, to be stingy'; Abaza/Tapanta *aj-g'-ǵa-ra* 'to share, to be stingy'.

46. Proto-Indo-European **hey-k^{wh}-o-* [**hay-k^{wh}-o-*] 'equal' (**h* = **ǵ*₄) (only in Latin): Latin *aequus* 'equal in itself, even, plain, level, flat', *aequē* (adv.) 'equally, in like manner, just as, in an equal degree, to the same extent', *aequō* 'to make equal, to equalize'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **aj-pšə* (< **aj-* 'together', **pšə* 'to look'): South Abkhaz *ajpš* 'like, as, similar'; Ashkharywa *ajpš-nə* 'like, as, similar'.

47. Proto-Indo-European **heyos-* [**hayos-*] 'metal' (**h* = **ǵ*₄): Sanskrit *áyas-* 'metal, iron'; Latin *aes* 'crude, base metal, especially copper', *aēneus* 'made of brass, copper, or bronze'; Gothic *aiz* 'brass, money, metal coin'; Old Icelandic *eir* 'brass, copper'; Old English *ār* 'brass, copper'; Old Saxon *ēr* 'ore'; Dutch *oer* 'bog-ore', *erts* 'ore'; Old High German *ēr* 'ore, copper'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **ajǵá*: South Abkhaz *ajǵá* 'iron; axe; bit (of a horse)'; Abaza/Tapanta *ajǵá* 'iron; metal'; Ashkharywa *ájǵa* 'iron'. Note also: South Abkhaz *ajg'oš'o* 'small axe'; Abaza/Tapanta *g'oš'o* 'small axe', *k'oaya* 'small axe'; Bzyp *ajk'oáy(a)* 'small axe'; Abzhywa *ajk'oáya* 'small axe'.

48. Proto-Indo-European **h₂hemH-* [**h₂hamH-*] ‘to cut, to mow’ (**h₂h* = **₂₂*): Hittite *hamešha-* ‘spring (season)’; Greek ἀμάω ‘to cut, to mow, to reap’, ἄμητος ‘reaping, harvesting; harvest, harvest-time’; Old English *māwan* ‘to mow’ Old Frisian *mēa* ‘to mow’; Old High German *māen* ‘to mow, to cut, to reap’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **ham(a)* ‘threshing-floor’: Bžedux *hāma* ‘threshing-floor’; Kabardian *ham* ‘threshing-floor’.

49. Proto-Indo-European **h₂hweǵ-y-/*h₂hwoǵ-y-* ‘(vb.) to blow; (n.) wind’ (**h₂h* = **₂₂*; **ǵ* = **₂₁*): Sanskrit *vāti* ‘to blow (of wind)’, *vāta-h* ‘wind, wind-god’, *vāyúṣ-* ‘wind, wind-god’; Gothic **waian* ‘to blow (of wind)’, *winds* ‘wind’; Old English *wāwan* ‘to blow (of wind)’; Old High German *wāen* ‘to blow (of wind)’; Lithuanian *vėjas* ‘wind’, *vėtra* ‘storm, stormy weather’; Old Church Slavic *vějō*, *vějati* ‘to blow’, *větrъ* ‘storm’; Russian *véjat’* [веять] ‘to winnow, to blow’, *véter* [ветер] ‘wind’; Hittite *huwant-* ‘wind’; Greek ἄ(F)ησι ‘to blow (of wind)’; Latin *ventus* ‘wind’; Welsh *gwynt* ‘wind’; Tocharian A *want* ~ *wānt*, B *yente* ‘wind’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **waya* ‘bad weather’: Bžedux *wāya* ‘bad weather (snow, rain, storm, cold)’; Kabardian *wāya* ‘bad weather (snow, rain, storm, cold)’. Circassian loans in: Abzhywa *a-wāja* ‘bad weather, storm’; Abaza/Taranta *wāja* ‘bad weather, storm’. Note: This appears to be a later borrowing.

50. Proto-Indo-European **k^hamero-* (> Greek **kamaro-*; Balto-Slavic **kemero-*) ‘name of a (poisonous) plant’: Greek κάμαρος ‘larkspur (*Delphinium*)’, κάμ(μ)αρον ‘aconite’; Old High German *hemera* (< **χamirō*) ‘hellebore’; Lithuanian *kēmeras* ‘hemp agrimony, burr marigold’; Russian Church Slavic *čemerъ* ‘hellebore’; Russian *čemerica* [чемерица] ‘hellebore’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **kámp’əɾə*: South Abkhaz *a-kámp’əɾ* ‘a kind of umbellate plant with white floscule’.

Note: Probably borrowed by both Proto-Indo-European and Northwest Caucasian from an unknown source.

51. Proto-Indo-European **k^hat^h-* ‘rag, tatter’ (only in Germanic): Old High German *hadara* ‘patch, rag’; Middle High German *hader*, also *hadel*, ‘rag, tatter’; Old Saxon *hadilīn* ‘rag, tatter’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k^haTṣ̣a* ‘to tear to shreds (tr.)’: Temirgoy *č’atṣ̣a-n* ‘to tear to shreds (tr.)’; Kabardian *kātṣ̣a* ‘to tear to shreds (tr.)’.

52. Proto-Indo-European **k^hat^h-* ‘to fight’: Sanskrit *śatru-h* ‘enemy, foe, rival’; Old Irish *cath* ‘battle’; Welsh *cad* ‘war’; Old Icelandic (in compounds) *höð-* ‘war, slaughter’; Old English (in compounds) *heaðu-* ‘war, battle’; Old High German (in compounds) *hadu-* ‘fight, battle’; Old Church Slavic *kotora* ‘battle’; Hittite *kattu-* ‘enmity, strife’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k:at^ha* ‘sword’: Šapsegh *k:āt^ha* ‘sword’; Kabardian *gāta* ‘sword’.

53. Proto-Indo-European **k^hay-wǵ-t^h*, **k^hay-wǵ-t^h* ‘cave, hollow’: Greek καιάδᾱς ‘pit or underground cavern’, καιέτός ‘fissure produced by an earthquake’; Sanskrit *kévaṭa-h* ‘cave, hollow’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k^həya* or **k^hayə* ‘tub’: Bžedux *č^həya* ‘tub’; Kabardian *kay* ‘tub’.

54. Proto-Indo-European **k^heAk^hA-* [**k^haAk^hA-*] (> **k^hāk^hA-*) ‘branch, twig’: Sanskrit *śākhā* ‘branch’; Armenian *c^hax* ‘twig’; Albanian *thekë* ‘fringe’; Gothic *hōha* ‘plow’; Lithuanian *šakà* ‘branch, bough,

twig'; Russian *soxá* [coxa] '(wooden) plow'; Polish *socha* 'two-pronged fork'; Serbo-Croatian *sòha* 'forked stick'.

Notes:

1. This is probably a reduplicated stem: **k^heA-k^heA-*.

2. The Slavic forms may be borrowings.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k^hə* 'brushwood, twig'; Bžedux *č^hə* 'brushwood, twig'; Kabardian *kə* 'brushwood, twig'. Common Abkhaz **káka*: South Abkhaz *a-káka* 'grown thick, bushed out (of plants)', *-káka-za* 'thickly, simultaneously going up (of plants, hair)'. Note: There are numerous derivatives in both Circassian and Abkhaz-Abaza. Only the forms closest to what is found in Indo-European are given above.

55. Proto-Indo-European **k^hem-* 'lacking horns, hornless': Sanskrit *śáma-h* 'hornless'; Greek *κεμάς* 'a young deer'; Lithuanian (Žem.) *šmūlas* 'hornless'; Old Icelandic *hind* 'a hind, a female deer'; Old English *hind* 'a hind, a female deer'; Old High German *hintā* 'a hind, a female deer'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k^hamə* 'to be insufficient, to lack': Kabardian *kam* 'to be insufficient, to lack', *mə-kamə-w* 'uninterruptedly' (*mə-* = negative element, *-w* = modal case).

56. Proto-Indo-European **k^hem-/k^hom-* 'to cover, to conceal': Sanskrit *sāmulyā-h* (Vedic *sāmūla-h*) 'thick woolen shirt'; Latin *camīsia* 'linen shirt or night-gown' (Gaulish loan ?); Gothic *-hamōn* in: *ana-hamōn*, *ga-hamōn* 'to get dressed', *af-hamōn* 'to get undressed', *ufar-hamōn* 'to put on'; Old Icelandic *hamr* 'skin, slough; shape, form', *hams* 'snake's slough, husk'; Old English *hemeþ* 'shirt', *ham* 'undergarment', *-hama* 'covering' (only in compounds), *hemming* 'shoe of undressed leather'; Old Frisian *hemethe* 'shirt'; Dutch *hemd* 'shirt'; Old High German *hemidi* 'shirt', *-hamo* 'covering' (in compounds).

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **qamə*: Bžyp *a-čamə* 'fur coat'; Abzhywa *a-čamə* 'fur coat'; Abaza/Tapanta *qamə* 'fur coat'.

57. Proto-Indo-European **k^her-/k^hor-/k^hr-* 'to make a rasping sound, to be hoarse; to creak, to croak': Greek *κρώζω* 'to cry like a crow, to caw; (of a wagon) to creak, to groan'; Latin *crōciō* 'to caw like a crow'; Old English *hrace*, *hracu* 'throat'; Middle Low German *rake* 'throat'; Old High German *rahho* (**hrahho*) 'jaws, mouth (of beast); throat, cavity of mouth', *rāhhisōn* 'to clear one's throat'; Lithuanian *krokiù*, *krōkti* 'to grunt'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **qər-qər*: Bžyp *á-čərčər-ħa* 'snore, snoring'.

58. Proto-Indo-European **k^het^h-/k^hot^h-* 'enclosed area, covered area': Old English *heaðor* 'restraint, confinement', *heaðorian* 'to shut in, to restrain, to confine'; Old Church Slavic *kotъcbъ* 'cage'; Old Czech *kot* 'booth, stall (market)'; Serbo-Croatian (dial.) *kôt* 'sty for domestic animals, young animals', *kôtac* 'cattle-shed, weir'; Slovenian *kótac* 'compartment of a stable, pig-sty, bird-cage'. Perhaps also Avestan *kata-* 'room, house'; Late Avestan *kata-* 'storage room, cellar'; Khotan Saka *kata-* 'covered place, house'; Farsi *kad* 'house'; Sogdian *kt'ky* 'house'; Pashto *kəlai* 'village' (*-l-* < *-t-*), *čat* 'roof'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k^hat^hə* 'sheep-shed': Bžedux *č^hat^hə* 'sheep-shed'; Kabardian *kat* 'sheep-shed'. Common Abkhaz **káta*: South Abkhaz *a-káta* 'village'; Ashkarywa *a-kát* 'village'; Abaza/Tapanta *kát* 'village'.

59. Proto-Indo-European **k^hlH-* 'hut' (only in Greek): Greek *καλύβη* 'a hut, cabin, cell; screen, cover', *καλιά* (Ionic *καλιή*) 'a wooden dwelling, a hut', *καλιός* 'a cabin, cot', *καλιάς* 'a hut'. Note: Some scholars have suggested that the Greek forms cited above are to be derived from the same root found in *καλύπτω* 'to cover with (a thing); to cover or conceal; to cover over', while others reject this view.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k^h(a)lə* ‘hut’: Temirgoy *č'(a)lə* ‘hut’; Kabardian *kəl* ‘hut’. Common Abkhaz **k'ála*: Bzyp *a-k'al* ‘hut’; Ashkharywa *k'ála* ‘hut’; Abzhywa *a-k'ála* ‘hut’; Abaza/Tapanta *k'ála* ‘hut’.

60. Proto-Indo-European **k^hmH-* ‘to work, to toil, to labor’: Sanskrit *śāmyati* ‘to toil at, to exert oneself; to grow calm, to pacify’ (originally ‘to be tired’), (participle) *śān-tá-h* ‘calmed, pacified, stilled’; Greek *κάμνω* ‘to work, to labor, to toil, to be weary’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **kamsá*: South Abkhaz *a-kamsa-rá* ‘to work as a (farm-)laborer; to dance (awkwardly, clumsily)’.

61. Proto-Indo-European **k^{wh}et^h-* in **k^{wh}et^h-wer-* ‘four’, assuming semantic development as follows: **k^{wh}et^h-* ‘to cut into (equal) parts’ > **k^{wh}et^h-wer-* ‘having equal sides’ > ‘square, four-sided’ > ‘four’ (cf. Sanskrit *catvará-m* ‘square, cross-roads’, thematic extension of a neuter noun **cátvar*, which has not been preserved; also Latin *-quetrus* in *triquetrus* ‘three-cornered, triangular’ and *quadra* [with *-dr-* from *-tr-*] ‘a square’). Though this etymology is highly speculative, it is not impossible. Clearly, the word for ‘four’ in the Proto-Indo-European ancestor of the non-Anatolian daughter languages is a fairly late creation. The Anatolian languages have an entirely different word for the number ‘four’: Hittite *me(y)u-* ‘four’; Hieroglyphic Luwian *mawa-* ‘four’; Cuneiform Luwian *ma-a-u-wa-* ‘four’; Lycian **mu-* in *mupm-* ‘four-fold’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **q:ət^ha* ‘to smash, to break, to chop’: Bžedux *q:ət^ha* ‘to smash, to break, to chop’; Kabardian *q'əta* ‘to smash, to break, to chop’.

62. Proto-Indo-European **-k'e* particle of unknown meaning: Greek *γε, γα* enclitic particle, serving to call attention to the word or words which it follows, by limiting or strengthening the sense; Gothic *-k* in (acc. sg.) *mik* (< **me+k'e*) ‘me’, (acc. sg.) *puk* (< **t^hu+k'e*) ‘you’; Hittite (acc. sg.) *am-mu-uk* ‘me’, (acc. sg.) *tu-uk* ‘you’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **q'a* directional postposition in, for example, **a-q'a*: South Abkhaz *áq'a-ra* ‘this much, about (of size, quantity)’, *z-aq'á* ‘how much (relative and interrogative)’; Abaza/Tapanta *áq'a-ra* ‘this much, about (of size, quantity)’, *z-áq-rá(-ha)* ‘how much (relative and interrogative)’; Ashkharywa *áq'a-ra* ‘this much, about (of size, quantity)’.

63. Proto-Indo-European **k'eb^h-* ‘bough, branch, stick’: Lithuanian *žābas* ‘(long) switch, dry branch’, *žabà* ‘rod, switch, wand’; Old Icelandic *kafli* ‘a piece cut off’, *kefli* ‘a cylinder, stick, piece of wood’; Middle Dutch *cavele* ‘stick, piece of wood used to throw lots’; Middle High German *kabel* ‘lot’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **q'aba*: Abaza/Tapanta *q'aba* ‘plow-share’.

64. Proto-Indo-European **k'el-/k'ol-/k'l-* ‘to cleave, to split’ (extended form: **k'l-ew-b^h-/k'l-ow-b^h-/k'l-u-b^h-* ‘to cleave, to split’): Proto-Germanic **kleubanan* ‘to cleave, to split’ > Old Icelandic *kliúfa* ‘to cleave, to split’; Old English *clēofan* ‘to cleave, to split’; Old High German *klioban* ‘to cleave, to split’. Proto-Germanic **kluβōn* ‘cleft, rift’ > Old Icelandic *klofi* ‘cleft, rift’; Old Frisian *klova* ‘chasm’; Old High German *klobo* ‘snare, trap’. Greek *γλύφω* ‘to carve, to cut out with a knife; to engrave’; Latin *glūbō* ‘to remove bark from a tree, to peel away bark’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **k'alə*: Abzhywa *a-k'al-ra* ‘to cleave, to split squared timber for making shingle’.

65. Proto-Indo-European **k'el-/k'ol-/k'l-* ‘hole, hollow’ (unattested): (extended forms) **k'leb^h-/k'lob^h-/k'lb^h-*; **k'lomb^h-* (in Slavic) ‘hole, hollow’ (> ‘deep’ in Slavic): Greek *γλάφω* ‘to scrape up, to dig up, to hollow’, *γλάφω* ‘a hollow, hole, cavern’, *γλαφυρός* ‘hollow, hollowed’; Old Church Slavic

glɔbokъ ‘deep’; Slovenian *globòk* ‘deep’, *globíti* ‘to excavate’, *glóbsti* ‘to excavate, to carve’; Bulgarian *glob* ‘eye socket’; Russian *glubókij* [глубокий] ‘deep’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **k’ála-ć’ə* (< **k’ala* ‘hole’, **ć’ə* ‘sharpened twig’): Bzyp *a-k’álać’ə* ‘wooden hook for hanging clothes; plug, spigot in the middle of the yoke’; Abzhywa *a-k’lać’ə* ‘wooden hook for hanging clothes; plug, spigot in the middle of the yoke’. Common Abkhaz **k’ála-ħa-ra*: South Abkhaz *a-k’álħa-ral/a-k’álaa-ra* ‘chink, little hole’.

66. Proto-Indo-European **k’el-/k’ol-/k’l-* ‘(to be) soft, tender, weak’: Old Icelandic *klökkur* ‘bending, pliable, soft’, *klökkva* ‘to soften’; Low German *klinker* ‘weak’; Lithuanian *glėžnas* ‘delicate, flabby, sickly, puny, frail, weak, feeble’, *glėžtù*, *glėžiaũ*, *glėžti* ‘to become weak, flabby’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **k’alá*: South Abkhaz *a-k’alá* ‘slender, elegant, graceful’.

67. Proto-Indo-European (extended form) **k’em-bʰ-/k’om-bʰ-/k’m-bʰ-* ‘to chew (up), to bite, to crush’, **k’om-bʰo-s* ‘tooth, spike, nail’: Sanskrit *jámbhate*, *jábhate* ‘to chew up, to crush, to destroy’, *jámbha-h* ‘tooth’, *jámbhya-h* ‘incisor, grinder’; Greek γόμος ‘bolt, pin’, γομῖος ‘a grinder-tooth’; Albanian *dhëmb* ‘tooth’; Old Icelandic *kambr* ‘comb’; Old English *camb* ‘comb’, *cemban* ‘to comb’; Old Saxon *kamb* ‘comb’; Old High German *kamb*, *champ* ‘comb’; Lithuanian *žam̃bas* ‘pointed object’; Old Church Slavic *zobъ* ‘tooth’; Russian *zub* [зуб] ‘tooth’; Tocharian A *kam*, B *keme* ‘tooth’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **q’əm-q’əmə*: Bzyp *q’əm-q’əm-wa* ‘(to eat) greedily, being very hungry’.

68. Proto-Indo-European (**k’en-/k’on-/k’n-*) **k’n-* ‘knot, knob’: Old Icelandic *knappr* ‘knob’, *knútr* ‘knot’; Old English *cnop* ‘knob’, *cnotta* ‘knot’; Middle Low German *knotte* ‘knot, knob’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k’ana*: Kabardian *k’āna* ‘piece, lump’. Common Abkhaz **k’ak’ánə*: South Abkhaz *a-k’ak’án* ‘walnut’; Ashkharywa *k’ak’án* ‘walnut’; Abaza/Tapanta *k’ak’an* ‘nut’.

69. Proto-Indo-European (**k’en-/k’on-/k’n-*) **k’n-* ‘knuckle-bone’: Old Icelandic *knúta* ‘knuckle-bone, joint-bone, head of a bone’, *knúi* ‘a knuckle’; Middle English *cnokil* ‘knuckle’; Middle Low German *knoke* ‘bone’.

Proto-Indo-European **k’en-u-*, **k’n-ew-* ‘knee, joint, angle’: Hittite *ge-e-nu* ‘knee’; Sanskrit *jānu* ‘knee’; Latin *genū* ‘knee, knot, joint’; Greek γόνυ ‘knee, joint’; Gothic *knīu* ‘knee’; Old Icelandic *kné* ‘knee’; Old English *cnēow* ‘knee’; Old Saxon *knio* ‘knee’; Old High German *kneo* ‘knee’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k’anə* ‘knuckle-bone (used in bone game)’: Bžedux *č’anə* ‘knuckle-bone (used in bone game)’; Kabardian *k’an* ‘knuckle-bone (used in bone game)’.

70. Proto-Indo-European (**k’en-/k’on-/k’n-*) **k’n-* ‘to bend, twist, turn, or tie together’: Greek γνάμπτω ‘to bend’, γναμπτός ‘bent, curved’; Old Icelandic *kneikja* ‘to bend backwards with force’, *knytja* ‘to knit or tie together’, *knýta* ‘to knit, to fasten by a knot, to bind, to tie’; Swedish *kneka* ‘to be bent’; Old English *cnyttan* ‘to tie with a knot’, *cnyttels* ‘string, sinew’; Middle Low German *knutten* ‘to tie’; New High German *knicken* ‘to crease, to bend, to fold, to crack, to break, to split, to snap, to burst’, *knütten* (dial.) ‘to knit’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **k’ant/dá*: South Abkhaz *a-k’ant’a-rá/á-k’anda-ra* ‘to swing, to rock, to bend’; Abaza/Tapanta *k’ant’a* ‘elastic, resilient’, *k’ant’a-ra* ‘to bend’.

71. Proto-Indo-European (extended form) **k'en-k'/*k'on-k'/*k'ŋ-k'* 'growth, excrescence': Greek γογγρόνη 'an excrescence on the neck', γόγγρος 'an excrescence on trees', γογγύλος 'round'; Lithuanian *gūnga* 'hunch, lump'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **k'an-(č'ə)č'əra*: Bzyp *a-k'anč'əč'ər* 'wart'; Abzhywa *a-k'anc'əč'əra*, *a-k'anc'ac'əra* 'wart'; Abaza/Tapanta *c'ənk'ra* 'wart'; Ashkharywa *k'anc'əra* 'wart'.

72. Proto-Indo-European **k'er-/*k'or-/*k'r-* 'to cry out, to call, to screech': Sanskrit *járate* 'to call out to, to address, to invoke; to crackle (fire)'; Crimean Gothic *criten* 'to cry'; Old Icelandic *krutr* 'murmur', *krytja* 'to murmur, to grumble', *krytr* 'noise, murmur'; Old English *ceorran* 'to creak', *ceorian* 'to murmur, to grumble', *ceorcian* 'to complain', *cracian* 'to resound', *crācettan* 'to croak', *crāwian* 'to crow'; Old Saxon **krāian* 'to crow'; Old High German *crāen*, *krāhen*, *chrāen*, *chrāen* 'to crow'; Old Church Slavonic *grajō*, *grajati* 'to crow, to caw'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k'ə(r)ğə* 'to squeak, to creak': Bžedux *č'ərgə* 'to squeak, to creak'; Kabardian *k'əğ* 'to squeak, to creak'. Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **k'ar-k'arə*: South Abkhaz *á-k'ark'ar-ra* 'to cackle'. Note: The Indo-European forms may also be compared with Common Abkhaz **q'ərə* 'to croak, to caw' (see below).

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **q'ərə*: South Abkhaz *a-q'ər-ra* 'to croak, to caw', (reduplicated) *á-q'ər-q'ər-ħa* description of loud laughter; Bzyp *a-q'rə* 'a kind of bird'. Note: The Indo-European forms may also be compared with Proto-Circassian **k'ə(r)ğə* 'to squeak, to creak' and Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **k'ar-k'arə* 'to cackle' (see above).

73. Proto-Indo-European **k'er(H)-/*k'or(H)-/*k'r(H)-* 'to decay, to wear out, to wither, to waste away, to become old': Sanskrit *járatī* 'to grow old, to become decrepit, to decay, to wear out, to wither, to be consumed, to break up, to perish', *jāra-ḥ* 'becoming old, wearing out, wasting', *jaraṇá-ḥ* 'old, decayed', *jūrṇá-ḥ* 'old, worn out, withered, wasted, decayed', *jūrṇá-ḥ* 'decayed, old', *járat-* 'old, ancient, infirm, decayed, dry (as herbs), no longer frequented (as temples) or in use', *jará* 'old age'; Armenian *cer* 'old'; Greek γεραιός 'old', γέρων (n.) 'an old man; (adj.) old', γῆρας 'old age'; Old Icelandic *karl* 'man, old man'; Old English *carl* 'man' (Norse loan), *ceorl* 'free man of the lowest class; free man; common man; husband; man, hero'; Old High German *karl* 'man, husband'; Old Church Slavonic *zrěti* 'to ripen, to mature', *zrěbъ* 'ripe'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **q'arh'əžə/*q'ərḥ'əžə*: South Abkhaz *a-q'arj'əž/a-q'ərj'əž* 'very old, decrepit'.

74. Proto-Indo-European (extended form) **k'r-um-bʰ-, *k'r-u-bʰ-* 'coarse, thick, big': Lithuanian *grubūs* 'uneven, rough'; Russian *grúbyj* [грубый] 'rough, coarse'; Czech *hrubý* 'big, coarse, rough'; Slovak *hrubý* 'thick, big, coarse'; Polish *gruby* 'thick, big, coarse'. Note also: Sanskrit *grathnāmi*, *grantháyati* 'to fasten, to tie or string together', *grathna-ḥ* 'bunch, tuft', *granthí-ḥ* 'a knot, tie, knot of a cord; bunch or protuberance'; Latin *grūmus* 'a little heap, hillock (of earth)'; Old Irish *grinne* 'bundle'; Old Icelandic *kring* 'round'; etc. Note: According to Pokorny (1959: 385—390), all of the above forms are ultimately derived from Proto-Indo-European **k'er-/*k'or-/*k'r-* (traditional **ger-/*gor-/*gr-*) 'to twist, to turn'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k'ərə* 'thick, dense (of wool, beard, etc.), long (of hair), high (of grass)': Bžedux *č'ərə* 'thick, dense (of wool, beard, etc.), long (of hair), high (of grass)'; Kabardian *k'ər* 'thick, dense (of wool, beard, etc.), long (of hair), high (of grass)'.

75. Proto-Indo-European **k'wedʰ-/*k'wodʰ-* 'to strike, to beat, to smash': Middle High German *quetzen*, *quetschen* 'to bruise, to mash, to crush'; Middle Low German *quetsen*, *quessen*, *quetten* 'to crush, to squeeze'; Dutch *kwetsen* 'to injure, to wound'; Swedish *kvadda* 'to smash to pieces'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k'oad(a)* 'to disappear, to get lost, to perish': Bžedux *k'ada* 'to disappear, to get lost, to perish'; Kabardian *k'ad* 'to disappear, to get lost, to perish'.

76. Proto-Indo-European **k'weh^hh-* [**k'wahb^hh-*]/**k'woh^hh-* (> **k'wāb^hh-*/**k'wōb^hh-*) 'to dip (in water), to submerge' (**h* = **ǵ₄*): Greek βάπτω 'to dip in water; to dye', βαφή 'dipping of red-hot iron into water; to dip in dye'; Old Icelandic *keffa* 'to dip, to put under water', *kveffa* 'to submerge, to swamp', *kæfa* 'to quench, to choke, to drown', *kvafna* 'to be suffocated, choked (in water, stream)'; Middle High German *er-queben* 'to suffocate'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **k'oabá*: South Abkhaz *á-k'oaba-ra* 'to wash, to bathe'; Abaza/Tapanta *k'aba-rá* 'to wash, to bathe'.

77. Proto-Indo-European (extended form) **k'weh^hh-d^h-* [**k'wah^hh-d^h-*]/**k'woh^hh-d^h-* (> **k'wād^h-*/**k'wōd^h-*) 'to push or press in, to tread (under foot)' (**h* = **ǵ₂*): Sanskrit *gāhate* 'to dive into, to bathe in, to plunge into; to penetrate, to enter deeply into', *gādhā-h* 'pressed together, close, fast, strong, thick, firm'; Prakrit *gāhadi* 'to dive into, to seek'; Punjabi *gāhnā* 'to tread out, to tread under foot, to travel about'; Hindi *gāhnā* 'to tread out, to caulk'; Serbo-Croatian *gāziti* 'to wade, to tread', *gaz* 'ford'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **k'oāha*: South Abkhaz *á-k'oāha-ra*, *a-k'oāha-rá* 'to knead (dough, clay, mud, etc.); to trample, to stamp'; Abaza/ Tapanta *k'oāha-ra* 'to knead (dough, clay, mud, etc.); to trample, to stamp'.

78. Proto-Indo-European **k'weru-* 'spear, spit' (< 'round object'): Latin *veru* 'spit (for roasting)'; Umbrian (acc. pl.) *berva* '(roasting-)spit'; Avestan *grava-* 'staff'; Old Irish *bir*, *biur* 'spear, spit'; Welsh *ber* 'spear, lance, shaft, spit'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **k'orá*: Bžyp (indef. sg.) *k'orá-k* 'wheel', *a-k'orč'č'žž'*, *a-k'orč'č'žž'* 'small cart, wagon; small wheel', *a-k'orá* 'roundish'; South Abkhaz *á-k'or-ra* 'to roll (of something small), to slide'; Abaza/Tapanta *r-k'or-ra* 'to pull, to drag', *qa-č'o-k'or-ra* 'bald-headed' (< *qa-č'o* 'skin of the head' + **k'ora* 'round').

79. Proto-Indo-European **k'wes-* 'to extinguish': Lithuanian *gestù*, *gèsti* 'to go out, to die out, to become dim'; Old Church Slavic *u-gasiti* 'to put out'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k'osa* 'to go out (as fire, light); to escape, to run away, to desert, to elope': Bžedux *k'oāsa* 'to go out (as fire, light)'; Kabardian *k'oāsa* 'to escape, to run away, to desert, to elope'. Common Abkhaz **k'oāšə*: South Abkhaz *a-k'oāš mca* 'fire (*mca*) made of hardened wood', *a-k'oāš-xa-ra* 'to harden, to be petrified (of wood); to be reduced to ashes; to be annihilated'.

80. Proto-Indo-European **k'wet^h-*/**k'wot^h-* 'to say, to speak, to call: Armenian *kočem* (< **k'wot^h-y-*) 'to call, to invite, to invoke, to name', *koč* 'call, invitation'; Gothic *qīpan* 'to say'; Old Icelandic *kveða* 'to say'; Old English *cweþan* 'to say, to speak'; Old Frisian *quetha* 'to speak'; Old Saxon *quedan* 'to speak'; Old High German *quedan* 'to speak'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **q'at^ha* 'to tell, to report; to announce, to make known': Bžedux *q'at^ha* 'to tell, to report'; Kabardian *q'at^ha* 'to announce, to make known'.

81. Proto-Indo-European **k'wet^h-u-* 'glutinous secretion, viscous discharge: gum, resin, sap' (< **k'wet^h-*/**k'wot^h-* 'to ooze [out], to seep [out]'): Sanskrit *jātu-* 'lac, gum'; Latin *bitūmen* 'pitch, asphalt' (borrowed from either Sabellian or Celtic); Middle Irish *beithe* 'birch-tree' (borrowed from Brittonic Celtic); Old Icelandic *kváða* 'resin'; Faroese *kváða* 'viscous fluid from a cow's teat'; Old Danish *kvade* 'birch sap'; Norwegian *kvaade*, *kvae* 'resin; watery fluid from a pregnant cow's udder', (dial.) *kvæde* 'birch sap'; Old English *cwidu*, *cweodo*, *cwudu* 'resin, gum; cud, mastic'; Old High German *quiti*, *kuti* 'glue'. Note: In view of Faroese *kváða* 'viscous fluid from a cow's teat' and Norwegian

kvaade, *kvae* ‘resin; watery fluid from a pregnant cow’s udder’, Armenian *kat^hn* ‘milk’ (dialectal variants include: Suč^hava *gat^hə*; Tbilisi *kát^hə*; Labarał, Goris, Šamaxi *kát^hnə*; Lori *kat^hə*; Agulis *kaxc^h*; Havarik *kaxs*; Areš *kaxs*; Mełri *kaxc^h*; Karčewan *kaxc^h*) may belong here as well. If so, then the traditional comparison of the Armenian form with Greek γάλα ‘milk’, Latin *lac* ‘milk’, etc. (cf. Martirosyan 2008:294—296) is to be abandoned.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **k^oət^h(a)* ‘to pour out, to pour into’: Bžedux *γə-k^oət^h(a)* ‘to pour out, to pour into’; Kabardian *γə-k^oət (a)* ‘to pour out, to pour into’ (*γə* = ‘hollow space’).

82. Proto-Indo-European **k^wγH-u-* ‘heavy, weighty; great, large, extended, long; grievous, serious; important, elevated’: Sanskrit *gurí-ḥ* ‘heavy, weighty; great, large, extended, long; high in degree, vehement, violent, excessive, deep, much; difficult, hard; grievous; important, serious, momentous; valuable, highly prized; dear, beloved; haughty, proud; venerable, respectable; best, excellent’; Latin *gravis* ‘heavy, weighty, burdensome; important, elevated, dignified; grievous, painful, hard, harsh, severe, unpleasant’; Greek βαρύς ‘heavy, weighty; impressive; difficult, wearisome, troublesome, oppressive’; Tocharian A *krāmārts*, B *kramartse* ‘heavy’, B *krāmār* ‘weight, heaviness’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **k^oəɾáćə*: South Abkhaz *-k^oəɾáćə-ʒa* (adv.) ‘notably grown (up), having become taller; upright, erect’; Bzyp (Akhutsa) *a-pə́nć’a k^oə́ćə* // (Zwandrypsh) *k^o(ə)ɾáćə* ‘turned-up nose’.

83. Proto-Indo-European **leʔ-u-s* (gen. sg. **leʔ-wo-s*) ‘stone’ (**ʔ* = **ʔ₁*): Greek λᾶας, λᾶς (< *λῆFας) (gen. sg. λᾶος) ‘a stone, especially a stone thrown by warriors’, λείω ‘to stone’, (Mycenaean) *ra-e-ja* ‘stone’; Old Irish *lie* (< *līwank-) ‘stone’; Albanian *lerë* ‘heap of stones’. Note: This is a contested etymology. This makes it difficult to reconstruct the Proto-Indo-European form with absolute certainty. Cf. Matasović 2009:242 and Pokorny 1959:683.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **ləwə*: South Abkhaz *á-ləw* ‘mill-stone’ (indef. sg. *ləwə-k*); Ashkharywa *a-ʒə-ləw* ‘watermill’; Feria *á-law* ‘mill-stone’; Abaza/Tapanta *ləw* ‘handmill’.

84. Proto-Indo-European **leh-* [**lah-*] (> **lā-*) ‘to bark’ (**h* = **ʔ₄*): Albanian *leh* ‘to bark’; Lithuanian *lóju*, *lóti* ‘to bark’; Old Church Slavonic *lajō*, *lajati* ‘to bark’; Russian *lájat’* [лаять] ‘to bark’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **la*: South Abkhaz *á-la-š-ra* ‘to bark’, *á-la* ‘dog’; Abaza/Tapanta *la* ‘dog’; Ashkharywa *la* ‘dog’.

85. Proto-Indo-European **leḥh-* [**laḥh-*] (extended form **leḥh-w/u-* [**laḥh-w/u-*]) ‘to pour, to pour out (liquids)’ (**ḥh* = **ʔ₂*): Hittite *lah-* in: (nom. sg.) *la-aḥ-ni-iš* ‘flask, flagon, frequently of metal (silver, gold, copper)’ (acc. pl. *la-ḥa-an-ni-uš*), (1st sg. pret.) *la-a-ḥu-un* ‘to pour, to pour out (liquids)’, (2nd sg. impv.) *la-a-aḥ* ‘pour!’; *lah(h)u-* in: (3rd sg. pres.) *la(-a)-ḥu(-u)-wa(-a)i*, *la-ḥu-uz-zi*, *la-a-ḥu-u-wa-a-iz[-zi]* ‘to pour (liquids, fluids; containers of these); to cast (objects from metal); to flow fast, to stream, to flood (intr.)’, (reduplicated ptc.) *la-al-ḥu-u-wa-an-ti-it* ‘poured’, (reduplicated 3rd sg. pres.) *li-la-ḥu-i*, *le-el-ḥu-wa-i*, *li-il-ḥu-wa-i* ‘to pour’, (reduplicated acc. sg.) *le-el-ḥu-u-un-da-in* ‘a vessel’; Luwian (1st sg. pret.) *la-ḥu-ni-i-ḥa* ‘to pour’ (?); Greek ληνός (Doric λᾶνός) ‘anything shaped like a tub or a trough: a wine-vat, a trough (for watering cattle), a watering place’ (< **lā-no-s* < **leḥh-no-s* [**laḥh-no-s*]).

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **laḥa* ‘rivulet’: Šapsegh *laḥa* ‘rivulet’.

86. Proto-Indo-European **leḥh^w-* [**laḥh^w-*] (> **lāw-*), (**lāḥh^w-* >) **luḥh^w-* (> **lū-*) ‘to hit, to strike, to beat’ (**ḥh^w* = **ʔ₂^w*): Sanskrit *lū-* (3rd sg. pres. act. *lunáti*, [Vedic] *lunoti*) ‘to cut, to sever, to divide, to pluck, to reap, to gather; to cut off, to destroy, to annihilate’, *láva-h* ‘act of cutting, reaping (of grain), mowing, plucking, or gathering’, *lāva-h* ‘cutting, cutting off, plucking, reaping, gathering; cutting to pieces, destroying, killing’, *laví-h* ‘cutting, sharp, edge (as a tool or instrument); an iron instrument for

cutting or clearing', *lūna-h* 'cut, cut off, severed, lopped, clipped, reaped, plucked; nibbled off, knocked out; stung; pierced, wounded; destroyed, annihilated', *lūnaka-h* 'a cut, wound, anything cut or broken; sort, species, difference', *lavitra-m* 'sickle'; Old Icelandic *ljósta* (< **lew-s-*) 'to strike, to smite; to strike, to hit (with a spear or arrow)', *ljóstr* 'salmon spear', *lost* 'blow, stroke', *lýja* 'to beat, to hammer; to forge iron; to wear out, to exhaust; (reflexive) to be worn, exhausted', *lúi* 'weariness', *lúinn* 'worn, bruised; worn out, exhausted'; Norwegian (dial.) *lua* 'to unwind'; Old Irish *loss* 'the point or end of anything, tail'; Welsh *llost* 'spear, lance, javelin, tail' (< **lustā*).

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **laḥ°á*: South Abkhaz *a-laḥ°a-rá* 'to thresh (grains)'; Bzyp *a-laḥ°(a)rá* 'mortar for threshing grains'; Abaza/Tapanta *laḥ°a-rá* 'to pound, to husk (grains)', *č'-laḥ°a-ra* 'mortar for threshing grains' (**č'a* 'wheat'); Abzhywa *a-laḥ°a-rá* 'mortar for threshing grains'.

87. Proto-Indo-European **mak'-* 'great, strong, mighty, powerful': Latin *magnus* (< **mak'(i)no-*) 'large, great, tall; outstanding, powerful, mighty', (adv.) *magis* 'more, to a greater extent, rather'; Albanian *madh* (< **mak'(H)yo-*) 'big, large, tall'; Old Irish *maige* (< Proto-Celtic **mag-yo-*) 'great', (poetic) *mál* (< Proto-Celtic **mag-lo-*) 'noble, prince'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **maq'á*: South Abkhaz *a-maq'á*, *á-maq'-a* 'strong, powerful, big, great', *maq'á* 'old (of animals)'; Abaza/ Tapanta *maq'á* 'strong, powerful, big, great'.

88. Proto-Indo-European **mat^h-* 'club, hoe': Sanskrit *matyá-h* 'harrow, roller; club'; Latin *mateola* (< **matea* 'hoe') 'wooden hammer'; Old High German *medela* 'plow'; Old Church Slavic *motyka* 'hoe'; Russian *motýga* [мотыга] 'hoe, mattock'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **matá*: South Abkhaz *á-mata* 'piece, strip of field to be plowed or hoed'.

89. Proto-Indo-European **mat'-* 'to be wet, moist': Greek μαδάω 'to be moist'; Latin *madeō* 'to be wet'; Sanskrit *máda-h* 'any exhilarating or intoxicating drink; hilarity, rapture, excitement, inspiration, intoxication; ardent passion for, sexual desire or enjoyment, wantonness, lust, ruttishness, rut (especially of an elephant); pride, arrogance, presumption, conceit of or about; semen', *mádati* 'to be glad, to rejoice, to get drunk', *mádya-h* '(adj.) intoxicating, exhilarating, gladdening, lovely; (n.) any intoxicating drink, vinous or spiritous liquor, wine, Soma'; Avestan *mada-* 'intoxicating drink'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **mat'ájə*: Bzyp *á-mat'əj* 'drizzle; nectar', *mat'əjk'a* 'melted wax', metaphorically 'state of a man under the influence of the evil eye'.

90. Proto-Indo-European **mē* negative/prohibitive particle: 'no, not': Sanskrit *mā* prohibitive particle: 'not, that not'; Armenian *mi* prohibitive particle: 'do not!'; Greek μή 'not'; Tocharian A/B *mā* 'not, no' (simple negation and prohibition); Albanian *mos* (< **mē+k^{wh}e*) prohibitive particle: 'do not!'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **mə-* negative prefix: Bžedux *mə-* negative prefix; Kabardian *mə-* negative prefix. Common Abkhaz **m(ə)-* ~ **m(a)-* negative prefix, in, for example, (reduplicated) **ma(-wə)-ma-wə* 'no' (< **ma* negation + **-wə* adverbial suffix): South Abkhaz *mamáw*, *mawmáw* 'no'; Abaza/Tapanta *mamáw*, *mmaw* 'no'.

91. Proto-Indo-European **meʔ-/*moʔ-* (> **mē-/*mō-*); extended forms: **meʔ-is-/*moʔ-is-* (> **meis-/*mois-*); **meʔ-r-/*moʔ-r-* (> **mēr-/*mōr-*) 'great(er), large(r); more' (*ʔ = **ǵ₁*): Gothic *maiza* 'greater, larger'; Old Icelandic *meiri* 'more'; Old English *māra* 'greater, more'; Old High German *mēro* 'more'; Old Irish *már*, *mór* 'great'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **ma-za* (**ma* 'to have' ?): South Abkhaz *a-máza-ra* 'wealth, big amount of (valuable) possessions'; Ashkarywa (Apsua) *maza-rá* 'wealth, big amount of (valuable) possessions'.

92. Proto-Indo-European **meh-* [**mah-*]/**moh-* (> **mā-/mō-*) ‘to beckon, to wave the hand’ (**h* = **₂₄*): Lithuanian *móju, móti* ‘to wave the hand’; Old Russian *majati* ‘to beckon’; Czech *mávati* ‘to wave’; Serbo-Croatian *mājati* ‘to beckon’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **ma* ‘hand’ in (this is but a sampling): Common Abkhaz **ma-p’o*: South Abkhaz *a-nap’o* ‘hand’; Ashywa *mp’o* ‘hand’; Abaza/Tapanta *nap’o* ‘hand’. Common Abkhaz **ma-tá*: South Abkhaz *á-mta* ‘handle’, (indef. sg.) *matá-k* ‘handle’. Common Abkhaz **ma-č’á*: Bzyp *a-mač’á* ‘palm, span’; Abzhywa *á-mač’a* ‘palm, span’. Common Abkhaz **ma-č’o*: South Abkhaz *a-ma-č’o-r* ‘arm’; Ashywa *mač’o* ‘arm’. Common Abkhaz **ma-há*: South Abkhaz *á-maa* ‘handle’; Abaza/Tapanta *mha* ‘handle’.

93. Proto-Indo-European **mel-* ‘wool, woolen garment’: Greek *μαλλός* ‘a lock of wool, wool’ (< **m̥l-nó-s* ?); perhaps also Lithuanian *milas* ‘rough (home-made) woolen cloth’ (< **m̥l-Ho-s*).

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **malə* ‘sheep’: Bžedux *malə* ‘sheep’; Kabardian *mal* ‘sheep’.

94. Proto-Indo-European **mel-/mol-/m̥l-* ‘(vb.) to be confused, mistaken, wrong; (n.) wrong, falsehood; (adj.) wrong, false’: Armenian *mel* ‘sin, transgression’, *molim* ‘to become mad’, *molorim* ‘to err, to be confused, to be mistaken; to be mad’, *molar* ‘erring, deceiving’, *moli* ‘mad, furious’; Middle Irish *mell* ‘fault, sin’, *mellaim* ‘to deceive’, *maile* ‘evil’; Old English *āmeallian* ‘to become insipid’; West Frisian *māl* ‘foolish, mad’; Middle Low German *mall* ‘stupid, foolish’; Dutch *mal* ‘foolish, funny, cracked, crazy, mad’; Lithuanian *mėlas* ‘lie, falsehood’; Latvian *meli* ‘lie, falsehood’; (?) Sanskrit *malvá-h* ‘thoughtless, foolish, unwise’; (?) Greek *μέλεος* ‘idle, useless; unhappy, miserable’; (?) Latin *malus* ‘bad, wicked, mischievous, malicious; incapable, cowardly, weak’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **malá*: South Abkhaz *a-malá*, (Feria) *á-mala-č’a* ‘for free; uselessly’, *á-mala* ‘uselessly; alone, by oneself’.

95. Proto-Indo-European **men-/mon-/m̥n-* ‘(vb.) to desire passionately, to yearn for; (n.) ardent desire, passion, lust’: Tocharian B *mañu* ‘desire’, A *mnu* ‘spirit, appreciation, desire’; Sanskrit *man-* (RV) ‘to hope or wish for’ (also ‘to think’), *mānas-* ‘spirit, passion’ (also ‘mind, intellect, perception, sense’), *manasyú-* (RV) ‘wishing, desiring’, *manā* (RV) ‘devotion, attachment, zeal, eagerness’, *manīṣita-* (MBh) ‘desired, wished (for); desire, wish’, *manyú-* (RV) ‘high spirit or temper, ardor, zeal, passion’; Greek *μεναιῖν* ‘to desire earnestly or eagerly’, *μένος* ‘spirit, passion’, *μέμωνα* (perfect used as present) ‘to desire or wish eagerly, to yearn for, to strive for’, *μενοινή* ‘eager desire’, *μενοινάω* ‘to desire eagerly’; Old Irish *menn-* ‘to desire’, *menme* ‘feeling, desire’ (also ‘mind, intelligence’); Old Icelandic *muna* ‘to like, to long for’, *munaðr* ‘delight’, *munnr* ‘love’, *munuð* or *munúð* ‘pleasure, lust’; Old English *myne* ‘desire, love, affection’ (also ‘memory’), *mynle* ‘desire’, *mynelic* ‘desirable’; Old Frisian *minne* ‘love’; Old Saxon *minnea*, *minnia* ‘love’; Old High German *minna* ‘love’, *minnōn*, *minneōn* ‘to love’.

Proto-Indo-European **manu-s* ‘man, begetter, progenitor’: Avestan *manuš-* ‘man, person’ in *Manuš-čīθra-*; Sanskrit *mānu-h* ‘man, mankind, father of men’; Gothic *manna* ‘man, person’; Old Icelandic *mannr* ‘man, human being’; Old English *mann* ‘man, human being’; Old Frisian *mann*, *monn* ‘man’; Old Saxon *mann* ‘man’; Old High German *man(n)* ‘man’; Old Church Slavonic *mqžb* ‘man’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **mana* ‘penis’: Bžedux *māna* ‘penis’; Kabardian *māna* ‘penis’.

96. Proto-Indo-European **merH-/morH-/m̥rH-* ‘to sparkle, to glisten, to gleam’: Hittite *marra-* or *marri-* ‘(sun)light’; Sanskrit *mārīci-h*, *mārīcī* ‘ray of light (of the sun or moon); light; a particle of light’, *marīcin-* ‘possessing rays, radiant; the sun’; Greek *μαρμαίρω, μαρμαρίζω* ‘to flash, to sparkle, to glisten, to gleam’; Gothic *maurgins* ‘morning’; Old Icelandic *morginn* ‘morning’; Old English *morgen*,

myrger ‘morning’; Old High German *morgan* ‘morning, tomorrow’; Belorussian *mríty* ‘to dawn, to grow light’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **mará*: Bzyp *á-mra* // *á-mər(a)* // *á-mara* ‘sun’; Ahchypsy *á-mara* ‘sun’; Ashkharywa *á-mara* ‘sun’; Abaza/ Tapanta *mará* ‘sun’.

97. Proto-Indo-European **met^h*- ‘to measure’ (> ‘to reap, to mow’): Latin *metō* ‘to reap, to mow; to gather, to harvest’; Welsh *medi* ‘to mow, to harvest’, *medel* ‘a group (of reapers)’; Lithuanian *metù*, *mèsti* ‘to throw, to hurl, to fling’, *mėtas* ‘time’, *mātas* ‘measure’; Old Church Slavic *metq*, *mesti* ‘to throw, to sweep’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **matá*: South Abkhaz *á-mata* ‘piece, strip of field to be plowed or hoed’.

98. Proto-Indo-European **mo*- demonstrative stem (only attested in relic forms in Brittonic Celtic): Welsh *yma* (poetical *yman*) ‘here’; Breton *ama*, *amañ*, *-ma*, *-mañ* ‘here’, (Vannetais) *ama*, *amann*, *amenn* ‘here’; Cornish *yma*, *omma*, *-ma*, *-man* ‘here’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **mə* ‘this’: Kabardian *mə* ‘this’; Bžedux *mə* ‘this’.

99. Proto-Indo-European **mor*- ‘mulberry, blackberry’: Greek *μόρον*, (Hesychius) *μῶρα*: *συκάμινα* ‘mulberry, blackberry’, *μωπέα* ‘mulberry-tree’; Armenian *mor* ‘blackberry’; Latin *mōrum* ‘mulberry, blackberry’, *mōrus* ‘mulberry-tree’; Middle Irish *merenn* ‘mulberry’; Old English *mōrbēam*, *mūrbēam* ‘mulberry-tree’, *mōrberie*, *mūrberie* ‘mulberry’; Old High German *mūrberi*, *mōrberi* ‘mulberry’; Lithuanian *mōras* ‘mulberry’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **mark^oa* ‘mulberry, blackberry’: Temirgoy *mārk^oa* ‘mulberry, blackberry’; Kabardian *marāk^oa* ‘mulberry, blackberry’.

Note: This may be a “Wanderwort”, borrowed by both Proto-Indo-European and Northwest Caucasian.

100. Proto-Indo-European **ne*-, **no*-, **ʔe+no*-, **ʔo+no*- demonstrative stem: ‘this, that’ (**ʔ* = **ʔ₁*): Sanskrit *ana*- (instr. *anēna*, *anáyā*) ‘this, these’, *ná* ‘like, as’; Greek *νί*, *ναι* used in strong affirmation: ‘yea, verily, aye, yes’, *ἐνί* ‘the last day of the month’; Latin (conj.) *enim* ‘indeed, truly, certainly’, *nē*, *nae* ‘yes, verily, truly’; Lithuanian *nė*, *nėgi*, *nėgu* ‘than’, *nei* ‘as, than’, *añs*, *anàs* (f. *anà*) ‘that, that one’; Old Church Slavic *онъ* (*ona*, *ono*) ‘that, he’; Hittite *an-ni-iš* ‘that, yonder’; Armenian *na* ‘that; he, she, it; him, her’, *-n* definite article.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **na* -: South Abkhaz *nas* (< **ná-sə*: **na*- ‘thither’, **sə* ‘to go’) ‘then, afterwards’; Ashkharywa *anas* ‘yes’ (with the interrogative connotation ‘well, then’); Bzyp *naq* (< **ná-q’a*) ‘thither’, *nač’ə* (< **n-a+č’ə*: **na*- ‘thither’, **a+č’ə* directional postposition) ‘there’. Common Abkhaz **a-ná*: South Abkhaz *aná* ‘there’; Abaza/ Tapanta *aná-ʔa* ‘there’.

101. Proto-Indo-European (**neb^h*-/**nob^h*- ‘navel’: Sanskrit *nābhi-h* ‘navel’; Old High German *naba* ‘nave, hub (of a wheel)’; Old Prussian *nabis* ‘navel’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **nəba* ‘belly’: Bžedux *nəba* ‘belly’; Kabardian *nəba* ‘belly’. Note also: Temirgoy *nəbəž’a* ‘navel’; Kabardian *bənža* ‘navel’; Abaza/ Tapanta *bənž’a* ‘navel’; Ubykh *nəbəž’* ‘navel’.

102. Proto-Indo-European **neg^h*-/**nog^h*- ‘to strike, to split, to pierce’: Old Irish *ness* ‘wound’; Old Church Slavic *nožb* ‘knife’, *pro-noziti* ‘to pierce through’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **nag(a)* ‘misshapen; to disfigure’: Kabardian *naga-ʔəga* ‘misshapen’, *bzaga-nāga* ‘bad, nasty, evil’, *wə-nag* ‘to disfigure’; Temirgoy *naʒ'a-ʔəʒ'a* ‘misshapen’.

103. Proto-Indo-European **(s)nuso-s* ‘daughter-in-law’: Sanskrit *snusā* ‘son’s wife, daughter-in-law’; Armenian *nu* ‘daughter-in-law’; Greek *νύος* ‘daughter-in-law; any female connected by marriage; wife, bride’; Albanian *nuse* ‘bride, (rarely) daughter-in-law’; Latin *nurus* ‘daughter-in-law; a young married woman’; Crimean Gothic *schuos* (misprint for **schnos*) ‘betrothed’; Old Icelandic *snor*, *snor* ‘daughter-in-law’; Old English *snoru* ‘daughter-in-law’; Old Frisian *snore* ‘daughter-in-law’; Middle Dutch *snoer*, *snorre* ‘daughter-in-law’; Old High German *snur*, *snor*, *snura*, *snuora* ‘daughter-in-law’; Serbian Church Slavic *sněxa* ‘daughter-in-law’; Russian *snoxá* [сноха] ‘daughter-in-law’; Serbo-Croatian *snàha* ‘daughter-in-law’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **nasa*: Bžedux *nasa* ‘(father’s) brother’s wife, daughter-in-law’; Kabardian *nasa* ‘(father’s) brother’s wife, daughter-in-law’; Adyghe *nasa* ‘(father’s) brother’s wife, daughter-in-law’. Ubykh *nəsá:y* ‘(father’s) brother’s wife, daughter-in-law’.

Note: Also found in Northeast Caucasian and Kartvelian:

1. Northeast Caucasian: Avar, Batsbi, Chechen, Ingush *nus* ‘daughter-in-law’; Andi *nusa* ‘daughter-in-law’; Tindi *nus(a)* ‘daughter-in-law’; Ghodberi *nuse-j* ‘daughter-in-law’; Karta *nusa* ‘daughter-in-law’; etc.
2. Kartvelian: Mingrelian *nisa*, *nosa* ‘daughter-in-law’; Laz *nusa*, *nisa* ‘daughter-in-law’.

104. Proto-Indo-European **p^hat^h-* ‘to beat, to knock; to strike, to smite’ (only in Greek): Greek *πατάσσω* ‘to beat, to knock; to strike, to smite’, *παταγμός* ‘a beating’, etc.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **p^hat^ha* ‘to damage, to wear out (a surface)’; Bžedux *ğ-a-p^hat^ha-n* ‘to damage, to wear out (a surface)’.

105. Proto-Indo-European (extended form) **p^heh-s-* [**p^hah-s-*] (> **p^hās-*) ‘to puff, to blow; to reek (of), to smell (of)’ (only in Slavic) (**h* = **ǵ₄*): Russian *paxnúť* [пахнуть] ‘to puff, to blow’, *páxnut’* [пахнуть] ‘to smell (of), to reek (of)’; Czech *páchnouti* ‘to be fragrant’; Polish *pachnąć* ‘to smell (of)’.

Perhaps also: Proto-Indo-European (extended form) **p^heh-k’-* [**p^hah-k’-*] (> **p^hāk’-*) ‘face, surface’ (only in Indo-Iranian) (**h* = **ǵ₄*): Sanskrit *pāṇī* ‘face, surface’; Khotan Saka *pāysa-* ‘surface’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **p^ha* ‘nose, front’: Bžedux *p^ha* ‘nose, front, beginning, etc.’; Kabardian *pa* ‘nose, front, beginning, etc.’ Proto-Circassian **p^haP^hla* ‘red-nosed’; Proto-Circassian **p^hax^ə* ‘white-nosed’; Proto-Circassian **p^haq:a* ‘snub-nosed’; Proto-Circassian **p^haP^hgə* ‘bridge of nose’; Proto-Circassian **p^ham(ə)* ‘to smell (something)’; etc. Common Abkhaz **pə* ‘nose’, in **pə-n-é’a* (< **pə* ‘nose’, *-n-* locative, *é’a* ‘sharp’): Ashkharýwa *a-pānc’a* ‘nose’; Bzyp *a-pānc’a* ‘nose’; Abzhywa *a-pānc’a* ‘nose’; Abaza/ Tapanta *pānc’a* ‘nose’. Common Abkhaz **a+pə* ‘before, at the front’; Common Abkhaz **a+p-á+ǰ’a* ‘earlier, previously, before’; Common Abkhaz **a+pə-ǰ’a* ‘earlier, previously, before’; Common Abkhaz **á+pə-ǰ’a* ‘at the front, earlier’; Common Abkhaz **a+p+qá* ‘ahead, before, earlier’; Common Abkhaz **p-á-ga* (< **p-a* ‘the first’, **ga* ‘to carry, to bring’) ‘to pass ahead, to be behind, to forestall’; Common Abkhaz **pə-bá* ‘smell, odor’; Common Abkhaz **pə-za* ‘to lead’; etc.

106. Proto-Indo-European **p^heh^h-* [**p^hah^h-*]/**p^hoh^h-* > **p^hā-/***p^hō-* ‘to protect, to guard, to defend’ (**h^h* = **ǵ₂*): Hittite (1st pres. sg. act.) *pa-aḫ-ḫa-aš-ḫi*, *pa-aḫ-ḫa-aš-mi* ‘to protect, to guard, to defend; to observe (agreements), to keep (oaths), to obey (commands), to keep (a secret)’; Tocharian B *pāsk-* ‘to guard, to protect; to practice (moral behavior)’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **p̄x̄a*: Abaza/Tapanta *p̄x̄a* ‘authority, respect, honor’. Common Abkhaz **p̄x̄á-k̄ə* (< **p̄x̄a* ‘authority’, **k̄ə* ‘vow’): South Abkhaz *a-p̄x̄á-k̄ə* ‘duty, obligation; fate’.

107. Proto-Indo-European **p̄h̄h̄h̄-ur-* [**p̄h̄h̄h̄-ur-*], **p̄h̄h̄h̄-wór-* ‘fire’ (**h̄h̄* = **ǵ₂*): Hittite (nom.-acc. sg.) *pa-aḫ-hu-ur*, *pa-aḫ-hu-wa-ar*, *pa-aḫ-hur* ‘fire’, (gen. sg.) *pa-aḫ-hu-e-na-aš*; Luwian (nom. sg.) *pa-a-hu-u-ur* ‘fire’; Greek πῦρ ‘fire’; Umbrian *pir* ‘fire’; Gothic *fōn* ‘fire’, (gen. sg.) *funins*; Old Icelandic *fúrr* ‘fire’, *funi* ‘flame’; Old English *fȳr* ‘fire’; Old Saxon *fiur* ‘fire’; Old High German *fiur*, *fuir* ‘fire’; Tocharian A *por*, B *puwar* ‘fire’; Old Czech *půř* ‘glowing ashes, embers’; Armenian *hur* ‘fire’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **P̄x̄aq̄ːə* ‘torch’: Kabardian *p̄x̄āq̄ːə* ‘torch’. Common Abkhaz **p̄x̄a*: South Abkhaz *a-p̄x̄á* ‘warm’, *a-p̄x̄a-ra* ‘to warm up, to become warm; to shine (of sun, moon)’; Abaza/Tapanta *p̄x̄a-rá* ‘to warm up, to become warm’. Common Abkhaz **p̄x̄-ǵə* (< **p̄x̄a* ‘warm’, **ǵə* ‘water’): South Abkhaz *a-p̄x̄-ǵə* ‘sweat’; Abaza/Tapanta *p̄x̄-ǵə* ‘sweat’. Common Abkhaz **p̄x̄á-nə* (< **p̄x̄a* ‘warm’, *-*nə* ‘season, time of’): South Abkhaz *a-p̄x̄á-n* ‘summer’; Abaza/Tapanta *p̄x̄-nə* ‘summer’, *p̄x̄ən-č’əl’a* ‘July; middle of summer’; Ashkharywa *a-p̄x̄á-n-ra* ‘summer’.

108. Pre-Proto-Indo-European **p̄hek̄^{wh}-*/**p̄hok̄^{wh}-* ‘to strike, to hit, to beat, to pound’ (> ‘to fight’ in Germanic): Hittite *pakkušš-* ‘to pound, to crack, to crush, to grind’, (adj.) *pak(kuš)šuwant-* ‘cracked (?)’. Proto-Germanic **fex̄tanān* ‘to fight’ > Old English *feohtan* ‘to fight, to combat, to strive; to attack, to fight against’, *feoht* ‘fight, battle; strife’; Old Frisian *fiuchta*, *fiochta* ‘to fight’; Old Saxon *feh̄tan* ‘to fight’; Old High German *feh̄tan* ‘to fight, to battle, to combat’, *gifeht*, *feh̄ta* ‘fight, battle, combat’. Note: Proto-Indo-European *-*k̄^{wh}* > *-*χ-* before *-*t-* in Proto-Germanic (cf. Proto-Germanic **naχ̄tz* ‘night’ [< **nok̄^{wh}ts*] > Gothic *nahts* ‘night’; Old Icelandic *nátt*, *nótt* ‘night’; Old English *niht*, *neah̄t* ‘night’; Old Frisian *nacht* ‘night’; Old Saxon *naht* ‘night’; Old Dutch *naht* ‘night’; Old High German *naht* ‘night’).

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **p̄hak̄ːə* ‘blunt’: Bžedux *p̄h̄āk̄ːə* ‘blunt’; Kabardian *pāḡːə* ‘blunt’. Apparent Kabardian loan (if not from **pə* ‘nose’, **aḡːə* ‘short’) in: South Abkhaz *a-pāḡːə* ‘dock-tailed, short; blunt, obtuse’; Abaza/Tapanta *paḡːə* ‘snub-nosed’.

109. Proto-Indo-European **p̄hek̄-*/**p̄hok̄-* ‘space, interval’ (only in Germanic): Old English *fæc* ‘space of time, division, interval’; Old Frisian *fek*, *fak* ‘niche’; Middle Dutch *vac* ‘compartment, section’; Old High German *fah* ‘wall, compartment’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **p̄hak̄ːə* ‘stretch, interval, zone’: Temirgoy *pāč̄ːə* ‘stretch, interval, zone’; Kabardian *pāka* ‘stretch, interval, zone’.

110. Proto-Indo-European **p̄her-*/**p̄hor-*/**p̄h̄r-* ‘(vb.) to fly, to flee; (n.) feather, wing’: Hittite (3rd sg.) *pár-aš-zi* ‘to flee’; Sanskrit *par̄ṇá-m* ‘wing, feather’; Latin *-perus* in *properus* ‘quick, rapid, hasty’, *properō* ‘to hasten’; Russian Church Slavic *per̄o*, *p̄rati* ‘to fly’, *pero* ‘feather’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **p̄arə*: South Abkhaz *a-p̄ar-rá* ‘to fly’, *á-p̄ar-p̄ar-ra* ‘to flit, to flutter, to flap’; Ashkharywa: (Kuv) *p̄ar-rá*, (Apsua) *b̄ar-rá* ‘to fly’; Bzyp *j̄ə-p̄arp̄ar-wá* ‘doing something quickly’, *á-p̄ar-h̄a* ‘quickly, swiftly’.

111. Proto-Indo-European **p̄her-*/**p̄hor-*/**p̄h̄r-* ‘to go or pass; to go or pass over or across; to go forth or out’: Sanskrit *píparti* ‘to bring over or to, to bring out of, to deliver from, to rescue, to save, to protect, to escort, to further, to promote; to surpass, to excel’, (causative) *pār̄áyati* ‘to bring over or out’, *pār̄á-h̄* ‘bringing across’; Greek περάω ‘to pass across or through, to pass over, to pass, to cross’, πορίζω ‘to carry, to bring about, to provide, to furnish, to supply, to procure, to cause’, πόρος ‘a means of crossing a river, ford, ferry’; Latin *portō* ‘to bear or carry along, to convey’, *porta* ‘gate, door’; Gothic **faran* ‘to wander, to travel’, **farjan* ‘to travel’, **at-farjan* ‘to put into port, to land’, **us-farþō* ‘shipwreck’; Old Icelandic *ferja* ‘to ferry over a river or strait’, *far* ‘a means of passage, ship’, *fara* ‘to move, to pass’.

along, to go', *farmr* 'freight, cargo, load', *færa* 'to bring, to convey', *för* 'journey'; Old English *faran* 'to go, to march, to travel', *ferian* 'to carry, to convey, to lead', *för* 'movement, motion, course', *ford* 'ford'; Old High German *faran* 'to travel', *ferien*, *ferren* 'to lead, to ferry across', *fuoren* 'to lead, to convey', *fuora* 'journey, way', *furt* 'ford'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **p^hər̥x̥ʷa* 'passageway, porch': Kabardian *pər̥x̥ʷa* 'passageway, porch'.

112. Proto-Indo-European **p^her-/p^hor-/p^hṛ-* base of prepositions and preverbs with a wide range of meanings such as 'in front of, forward, before, first, chief, forth, foremost, beyond, etc.': Sanskrit *pārah* 'far, distant', *purāḥ* 'in front, forward, before', *purati* 'to precede, to go before', *prá* 'before, in front', *prāti* 'towards, near to, against', *pratarám* 'further', *prathamá-h* 'foremost, first'; Greek πέπᾱν, πέπῃν 'across, beyond, on the other side', παρά, παρὰ 'beside', πάρος 'before', πρό 'before', πρότερος 'before, in front of, forward', πρώτος 'first, foremost', πρόμος 'chief, foremost, first', πρόκα 'forthwith', πρὸς, προτί 'from'; Latin *per* 'through, along, over', *prae* 'before, in front', *prior* 'former, first', *prīmus* 'first, foremost', *prō* 'before, in front of'; Gothic *faur* 'for, before', *frauja* 'master, lord', *fairra* 'far', *faura* 'before, for, on account of, from', *fram* 'from, by, since, on account of', *framis* 'further, onward', *frumists* 'first, foremost, best, chief', *fruma* 'the former, prior, first', *frums* 'beginning'; Old Icelandic *for-* 'before', *ffjarri* 'far off', *fram* 'forward', *fyr* 'before, sooner', *fyrstr* 'first'; Old English *feorr* 'far', *feorran* 'from afar', *for*, *fore* 'before', *forma* 'first', *fram* 'from', *frum* 'first', *fyrst*, *fyrrest* 'first', *fyrrest* 'first'; Old Frisian *for* 'before', *fara*, *fore* 'before', *ferest* 'first', *forma* 'first', *vorsta*, *fersta* 'prince'; Old Saxon *for*, *fur* 'before', *for(a)*, *far* 'before', *forma* 'first', *furi* 'before', *furist* 'first, foremost', *furisto* 'prince'; Old High German *furi* 'before, for', *fora* 'before', *furist* 'first', *fir(i)-* 'opposite'; Lithuanian *prō* 'through, past, by', *priē* 'at, near, by', *priēš* 'against'; Hittite *pa-ra-a* 'forth', *pi-ra-an* 'before, forth'; Luwian *pār-ra-an* 'before, in front', *pa-ri-ya-an* 'beyond; exceedingly, especially'; Lycian *przze/i-* 'front, foremost', *pri* 'forth; in front'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **pə-ra* 'through': South Abkhaz *a-par-h^əa*, *a-pəra-h^əa* 'apron' (< *a-pəra-h^əa-ra* 'to tie up through'); Abaza/ Tapanta *pra-psá* 'curtain; apron' (< **pəra-psa* 'to throw through').

113. Proto-Indo-European **p^hes-/p^hos-, *p^hs-u-* 'to breathe, to blow': Sanskrit *psu-* in *ápsu-h* 'breathless'; Greek πῦχῃ 'breath, spirit; the soul or spirit of man', πύχω 'to breathe, to blow'. Note: An alternative etymology is possible: **b^hes-/b^hos-, *b^hs-u-* 'to breathe, to blow' (see above).

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **Psa* 'life, soul': Bžedux *psa* 'life, soul'; Kabardian *psa* 'life, soul'. Proto-Circassian **Psawə* 'to live': Kabardian *psaw* 'to live; healthy, whole, all'; Bžedux *psawə* 'to live', *psāwə* 'healthy', *pst:awə* 'whole, all'. Common Abkhaz **psə*: Bzyp *a-psə-n-č'-rə* 'life-time'; South Abkhaz *a-psə* 'soul', *a-psəp* 'respiration', *a-psatá* 'place where souls rest after death', *a-ps-s'a-ra* '(to) rest', *a-psəč* 'weak'; Abaza/ Tapanta *psə* 'soul', *psəp* 'respiration', *psatá* 'place where souls rest after death', *č-ps-s'a-ra* '(to) rest'; Abzhywa *a-psə-n-č'-rə* 'life-time'.

114. Proto-Indo-European **p^hēs-/p^hōs-* (with nasal infix **p^hēns-/p^hōns-*) 'dust, sand': Sanskrit *pāmsú-h*, *pāmsuká-h* 'crumbling soil, dust, sand'; Old Church Slavic *pěsəkъ* 'sand'; Russian *pesók* [necok] 'sand'; (?) Luwian *pa/ušūriya-* 'dust (?)', *pāšihā(i)-* 'to pulverize (?)'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **psa* 'to pour dry substance (for example, sand, grains), to strew': South Abkhaz *á-k^ə-psa-ra* 'to pour something on, to sow', *á-psa-q'a-ra* 'to winnow (grain)' (**q'a* 'to wave, to beat'); Abaza/ Tapanta *á-k^ə-psa-ra* 'to pour something on, to sow'.

115. Proto-Indo-European **p^hes-t^hi-/p^hos-t^hi-* 'fire' (only in Icelandic): Old Icelandic (poet.) *fasti* 'fire'; Modern Icelandic *fastilja* 'smoke coming from a covered fire'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **Ps(a)* ‘to shine’: Bžedux *q:-ya-psə* ‘to shine (as sun, fire) (intr.)’; Kabardian *q’-ay-ps* ‘to shine (as sun, fire) (intr.)’; Temirgoy *tya-psa* ‘to illuminate (intr.)’. Proto-Circassian **Psəz°a* ‘boiling water’: Temirgoy *psəz°a* ‘boiling water’. Common Abkhaz *(*p*)*sasəjə*: South Abkhaz *a-psasəj* ‘a bit warm’, *a-psasəj-ra* ‘to warm up a bit, to start melting (snow)’; Abaza/Tapanta *sasəj-ra* ‘to melt’; Bžyp *á-psasəj-ra* ‘to warm up a bit, to start melting (snow)’.

116. Proto-Indo-European **p^{hes-tʰo-}/p^{hos-tʰo-}* ‘fast, firm’: Armenian *hast* ‘firm, steady, standing still, tough’, *hastoġ* ‘firmness, standing still, strength’; Gothic *fastan* ‘to keep firm, to hold fast’; Old Icelandic *fastr* ‘fast, firm’; Old English *fæstnian* ‘to fasten, to fix, to secure, to bind’, *fæst* ‘fast, fixed, firm, secure’; Old Saxon *fast* ‘fast, firm’; Old High German *fasto*, *faste* ‘fast, firm’, *festī*, *festīn* ‘firmness, strength; shelter, stronghold, fortress’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **psə* ‘string, cord, lace, strap, handle’: Bžedux *-psə* ‘string, cord, lace, strap, handle’, *č’āpsa* ‘string, rope’; Kabardian *psə* ‘string, cord, lace, strap, handle’, *k’āpsa* ‘string, rope’; Temirgoy *lapsə* ‘leather strap for tying up shoes, shoelace’. Common Abkhaz **psa* ‘to tie up’: South Abkhaz *a-č-āj-də-psa-la-ra* ‘to press, to lean against something’, *a-g°ə-c’a-psa-ra* ‘to press itself against somebody, to cross the hands at the bosom’, *a-c’a-psa-ra* ‘to bend, to kneal’, *a-č-āj-k’°a-psa-ra* ‘to curl up, to fold up (wings)’; Abaza/Tapanta *pra-psá* ‘curtain, apron’, *pəra-psa-ra* ‘to tie up through’, *j-a-l-pəra-l-psa-d* ‘she put on the apron’ (literally ‘she tied up the apron’).

117. Proto-Indo-European **p^{het-}/p^{hot-}* ‘to fly, to rush, to pursue; to fall, to fall down’: Hittite *pát-tar* ‘wing’, (3rd pl. pres.) *pít-ti-(ya-)an-zi* ‘to flee, to fly, to hasten’; Sanskrit *pátati* ‘to fly, to soar, to rush on; to fall down or off; to set in motion, to set out on foot; to rush on, to hasten’, (causative) *patáyati* ‘to fly or move rapidly along, to speed’, *pátram* ‘wing, feather’, *pátvan-* ‘flying, flight’; Greek πέτομαι ‘to fly; (also of any quick motion) to fly along, to dart, to rush; to be on the wing, to flutter’, πίπτω ‘to fall, to fall down’, πτερόν ‘feather, bird’s wing’; Latin *petō* ‘to make for, to go to, to seek’; Old Irish *én* (< **ethn-* < **pet-no-s*) ‘bird’; Welsh *edn* ‘bird’; Old Breton *etn-* ‘bird’; Old Icelandic *fföðr* ‘feather, quill’; Old English *feþer* ‘feather’, (pl.) *feþra* ‘wings’; Old Frisian *fethere* ‘feather’; Old Saxon *fethara* ‘feather’; Old High German *fedara* ‘feather’, *fettāh* ‘wing’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **pat-pátə*: South Abkhaz *a-pat-pát-ra* ‘to flutter, to quiver (of bird); to flounder, to wallow’; Bžyp *a-pat-mát-ra* ‘to flutter, to quiver (of bird); to flounder, to wallow’.

118. Proto-Indo-European **p^hē(y/i)-* ‘to hurt, to harm, to attack’: Gothic *fijands* ‘enemy’; Old Icelandic *ffjandi* ‘enemy, foe’; Old English *fēonds* ‘enemy’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **p:əyə* ‘enemy’ (/p:/ = unaspirated /p/): Bžedux *p:əyə* ‘enemy’; Kabardian *bəy* ‘enemy’.

119. Proto-Indo-European **p^{hoʔ-tʰ-lo-m}* (> **p^{hō-tʰ-lo-m}*) ‘drinking-vessel’ (*ʔ = **ʔ₁*): Sanskrit *pātra-m* ‘drinking-vessel, goblet, bowl, cup’; Latin *pōculum* ‘a drinking-cup, goblet’. Note also: Hittite *pa-aš-zi* ‘to swallow, to gulp down’; Sanskrit *pātar-*, *pātár-* ‘one who drinks, a drinker’, *pībati* ‘to drink’; Latin *pōtō* ‘to drink’, *pōtus* ‘drunk’; Lithuanian *puotà* ‘feast, banquet, drinking-bout’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **pátχ’a*: South Abkhaz *a-pátχ’* ‘horn used for drinking wine’.

120. Proto-Indo-European **p^{hos-}* ‘behind, after; afterwards, subsequently, at a later time’: Latin *post* (adv.) ‘behind, in the rear; after, afterwards, subsequently; shortly afterwards; (prep.) behind, after’; Sanskrit (adv.) *paścā* ‘being behind, posterior, later; afterwards; behind, at the back, after; at a later time, subsequently, at last’; Greek (dial.) πός ‘at, to’; Lithuanian *pàs* ‘near, at, by, to, with’; Old Church Slavic *pozdě* ‘late’; Russian *pózdij* [поздij] ‘late, tardy’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **p^hasa* ‘early, long ago’: Bžedux *p^hāsa* ‘early, long ago’; Kabardian *pāsa* ‘early, long ago’. Common Abkhaz **pāsa*: South Abkhaz *a-pāsa* ‘early, earlier’; Abaza/Tapanta *pāsa* ‘early, earlier’.

121. Proto-Indo-European **p^hot^h-i-* ‘one who is strong, powerful, able, capable, master of’: Sanskrit *pāti-h* ‘master, owner, possessor, lord, ruler, governor, sovereign; husband’; Greek *πόσις* ‘husband’; Latin *potis* ‘able, capable’, *potior* ‘to get, to obtain, to gain possession of; to possess, to have, to be master of’; Gothic *-faps* in *bruf-faps* ‘bridegroom’; Old Lithuanian *patis* ‘oneself, himself, itself’; Tocharian A *pats*, B *pets* ‘husband’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **p:ət:a* ‘strong, solid’: Bžedux *p:ət:a* ‘strong, solid’; Kabardian *bəda* ‘strong, solid, stingy’.

122. Proto-Indo-European **p^hṛ-k^h-* ‘glowing embers, ashes’: Lithuanian *pirkšnis* ‘glowing cinders’, *pirkšnys* ‘glowing ashes’; Old Irish (nom.-acc. pl.) *richsea* ‘live coals’; Breton *régez* ‘glowing embers’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **pəryá*: South Abkhaz *a-pəryá* ‘embers’; Abaza/Tapanta *pəryá* ‘embers’.

123. Proto-Indo-European **p^helo-* ‘strong, powerful; big, large, great’: Sanskrit *bála-m* ‘power, strength, might, vigor; force, violence, rigor, severity’, *balín-* ‘powerful, strong, mighty, vigorous, stout, robust’; Greek *βελτίων, βέλτερος*, comparative of *ἀγαθός*, ‘better, more excellent’; Latin *dē-bilis* ‘feeble, weak’ (= *dē-* ‘without’ + **bilis* ‘strength’ [not otherwise attested in Latin]); Old Church Slavic *boljebъ* ‘bigger, better’; Russian *ból’sij* [больший] ‘greater’, *bol’sój* [большой] ‘big, large’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **p’ələp’ələ*: South Abkhaz *a-p’ələp’əl-ra* ‘to swarm, to teem with something’.

124. Proto-Indo-European **sehh^w-* [**sa^hh^w-*] (unattested) ‘to be or become hot, warm; to heat up, to make hot, to warm, to burn’; only found with the suffixes **(e)l-*, **(e)n-*: **sehh^w-(e)l-* (> **sāwel-*), **sh^hh^w-ōl-* (> **swōl-*), (**sə^hh^w-l-* >) **su^hh^w-l-* (> **sūl-*); **sh^hh^w-en-* (> **swen-*), **sə^hh^w-n-* > **su^hh^w-n-* (> **sūn-*), etc. ‘the sun’ (**h^hh^w = *₂₂^w*): Greek *ἥλιος* (Doric *ἄλιος, ἄέλιος*; Epic Greek *ἡέλιος*; Aeolian and Arcadian *ἄέλιος*; Cretan *ἄβέλιος* [that is, *ἄφέλιος*]) (< **σᾰφέλιος*) ‘the sun’; Latin *sōl* (< **swōl-* < **sh^hh^w-ōl-*) ‘the sun’; Old Irish *súil* ‘eye’; Welsh *haul* ‘the sun’; Gothic *sauil* (< Proto-Germanic **sōwilō*) ‘the sun’, *sugil* ‘the sun’, *sumnō* ‘the sun’ (< Proto-Germanic **sun-ōn*, with *-nn-* from the gen. sg. **sunnez* < **s(w)ŋ-* < **sh^hh^w-ŋ-*); Old Icelandic *sól* ‘the sun’, *sunna* ‘the sun’; Old English *sōl* ‘the sun’, *sigel, segl, sægl, sygil* ‘the sun’, *sunne* ‘the sun’; Old Saxon *sunna* ‘the sun’; Old High German *sunna* ‘the sun’; Lithuanian *saulė* ‘the sun’; Latvian *saule* ‘the sun’; Avestan *hvarə* ‘the sun’, (gen. sg.) *x^wəng* (< **swen-s*); Sanskrit *svār-* (*súvar-*) ‘the sun’, (gen. sg. *sūrah*), *sūrya-h* ‘the sun’.

Proto-Indo-European **sh^hh^w-elH-/*sh^hh^w-olH-/*sh^hh^w-lH-* (> **swelH-/*swolH-/*swlH-*) ‘to burn’: Greek *εἴλη, ἔλη* ‘warmth, heat of the sun’, *ἄλέα* (Ionic *ἄλέη*) ‘warmth (of the sun), heat (of fire)’; Old English *swelan* ‘to burn, to burn up; to inflame (of a wound)’, *swol* ‘heat, burning, flame, glow’; Old High German *swilizōn* ‘to burn slowly’; Lithuanian (caus.) *svilinti* ‘to singe, to parch, to burn’, *svilū, svilaū, svilti* ‘to scorch, to parch’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **sax^oa* ‘ashes’: Kabardian *sāx^oa* ‘ashes’.

125. Proto-Indo-European **sem-/som-* ‘together, together with; one’ (originally ‘to gather together’): Sanskrit *sa* (< **sm-*) ‘with, together with, along with’, *sám* ‘with, together with, along with, together, altogether’, *sa-trā* ‘together, together with’, *sámana-h* ‘meeting, assembly, amorous union, embrace’, *samūbhā-h* ‘heap, collection’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **sama* ‘heap’: Bžedux *sāma* ‘heap’; Kabardian *sāma* ‘heap’.

126. Proto-Indo-European **sew(H)-/*sow(H)-/*su(H)-* ‘to give birth’: Sanskrit *sūte*, *sūyate* ‘to beget, to procreate, to bring forth, to bear, to produce, to yield’, *suta-h* ‘son, child’, *sūti-h* ‘birth, production’, *sūnū-h* ‘son, child, offspring’; Avestan *hunu-š* ‘son’; Greek *υἱός*, *υἰός* ‘son’; Old Irish *suth* ‘offspring’; Gothic *sunus* ‘son’; Old Icelandic *sunr*, *sonr* ‘son’; Old English *sunu* ‘son’; Old Saxon *sunu* ‘son’; Old High German *sunu* ‘son’; Lithuanian *sūnūs* ‘son’; Old Church Slavic *synъ* ‘son’; Russian *сын* [сын] ‘son’; Tocharian A *se*, B *soy* ‘son’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **śawa* ‘youth’: Bžedux *śāwa* ‘youth, especially bridegroom’; Kabardian *śāwa* ‘youth, especially bridegroom’; Temirgoy also ‘son’. Note: Kuipers (1975:32) writes **śawa* ‘youth, especially bridegroom’.

127. Proto-Indo-European (prefix) **su-* ‘well, good’: Sanskrit *sú* (also *sū* in the Rigveda) ‘good, excellent, right, virtuous, beautiful, easy, well, rightly, much, greatly, very, any, easily, quickly, willingly’ in *su-kṛt-ā-h* ‘a good or righteous deed, a meritorious act, virtue, moral merit; a benefit, bounty, friendly assistance, favor; good fortune, auspiciousness; reward, recompense’, *su-kṛt-* ‘doing good, benevolent, virtuous, pious; fortunate, well-fated, wise; making good sacrifices or offerings; skillful’, *su-kāra-h* ‘easy to be done, easy to be managed, easily achieving’, benevolence’, *su-kāra-m* ‘doing good, charity, *su-dīvā-h* ‘a bright or fine day’, *su-mānas-* ‘well disposed’, etc.; Greek *υ-* in *υ-γιής* ‘sound, healthy’, *υ-γία* ‘soundness, health’, etc.; Old Irish *su-*, *so-* ‘good’ in *so-chor* ‘good contract’, *su-aítribhíde* ‘habitable’, *so-lus* ‘bright’, etc.; Welsh *hy-* in *hy-gar* ‘well-beloved, lovable’, *hy-dyn* ‘tractable’, *hy-fryd* ‘pleasant’, etc.; Old Icelandic *sú-* in *sú-svort* ‘nightingale’ (this word is obsolete in Icelandic); Lithuanian *sū-* in *sū-drūs* ‘luxuriant’, etc.; Old Church Slavic *sъ-* in *sъ-dravъ* ‘healthy’, *sъ-mrěto* (< **su-mṛtʰi-*) ‘death’, etc.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **śʷ(a)* ‘good’, **śʷəs’a* ‘beneficent; benefit, good deed’, **śʷəč’a* ‘gratitude’: Kabardian *f’ə* ‘good’, *f’əs’a* ‘beneficent; benefit, good deed’, *f’əč’a* ‘gratitude’; Bžedux *śʷə* ‘good’, *śʷəs’a* ‘beneficent; benefit, good deed’, *śʷəč’a* ‘gratitude’. Note: Kuipers (1975:32) writes **śʷ(a)* ‘good’.

128. Proto-Indo-European **(s)tʰeh-* [**(s)tʰah-*] (> **(s)tʰā-*) ‘to stand’ (**h* = **₂h*): Sanskrit (reduplicated) *tīṣṭhati* ‘to stand’; Greek (reduplicated) *ἵστημι* (Doric *ἵστᾱμι*) ‘to stand’; Latin (reduplicated) *sistō* ‘to cause to stand, to put, to place’, *status* ‘standing, standing position’; Luwian *tā-* ‘to step, to arrive’. Note also: Hittite *iṣtantāye/a-* ‘to stay put, to linger, to be late’; Gothic *standan* ‘to stand’; Old Icelandic *standa* ‘to stand’; Old English *standan* ‘to stand’; Old Saxon *standan* ‘to stand’; Old High German *stantan* ‘to stand’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **tʰə* ‘to stand’: Bžedux *tʰə* ‘to stand’; Kabardian *tə* ‘to stand’ (only with local prefixes). Common Abkhaz **ta* ‘stand, place of, home’: South Abkhaz *a-tā-zaa-ra*, *a-ta-rá* ‘to be inside’, *a-t-rá* ‘place of something’, *ta-* (preverb) ‘inside’; Abaza/Tapanta *tá-z-la-ra* ‘to be inside’, *ta-rá* ‘place of something’, *ta-* (preverb) ‘inside’, *ta* ‘stand, place of, home’.

129. Proto-Indo-European **tʰel-kʰ-/tʰol-kʰ-/tʰl̥-kʰ-* ‘to push, to thrust, to knock, to strike’: Welsh *talch* ‘fragment, flake’; Old Irish *tolc*, *tulc* ‘blow, strike’; Old Church Slavic *tlъkъ*, *tlěsti* ‘to knock’; Russian *tolkat’* [толкать] ‘to push, to shove’, *tolkač* [толкач] ‘stamp, pusher’; Czech *tlak* ‘pressure’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **t:ala* ‘to splash, to threaten; to shake (fist), to wave threateningly; to rattle (the saber)’: Temirgoy *tāla* ‘to splash, to threaten’, *ġa-tala-n* ‘to shake (fist), to wave threateningly; to rattle (the saber)’: Kabardian *dāla* ‘to splash, to threaten’, *ġa-dāla* ‘to shake (fist), to wave threateningly; to rattle (the saber)’.

130. Proto-Indo-European **tʰer-s-*, **tʰr-es-* ‘to tremble, to shake’: Sanskrit *trāsati* ‘to tremble, to quiver’; Avestan *tərəs-* ‘to be afraid’; Greek *τρέω* ‘to tremble, to quiver’; Latin *terreō* ‘to frighten, to terrify’, *terror* ‘fright, fear, terror, alarm, dread’.

Proto-Indo-European **tʰr-em-/tʰr-om-/tʰr-m-* ‘to tremble, to shake’: Greek τρέμω ‘to tremble, to quiver’, τρόμος ‘a trembling, quaking, quivering (especially with fear)’; Latin *tremō* ‘to tremble, to quake’; Old Church Slavic *tręq, tręsti* ‘to shake’; Tocharian A *träm-* ‘to be furious’, B *tremi* ‘anger’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **trāsə*: Bzyp *á-trās-ra* ‘to startle’, Abzhywa *a-trās-ra* ‘to startle’; Abaza/Tapanta *trās-ra* ‘to rush, to throw oneself towards something; to attack’.

131. Proto-Indo-European **tʰopʰ-* ‘place, region, locality’ (only in Greek): Greek τόπος ‘place, region, locality’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **təpə*: South Abkhaz *a-təp* ‘place, stand, halt, hut’; Ashkharywa *a-təp* ‘place, locality’; Abaza/Tapanta *təp* ‘hut of a shepherd, hunter, mower; imprint; place chosen for a building’.

132. Proto-Indo-European **tʰeAʷ- [tʰaAʷ-]* (> **tʰāw-*) ‘to burn, to blaze’: Sanskrit *dāvā-h* ‘forest fire’, *dāváyati* ‘to burn, to consume by fire’; Greek δαίω (< δαΐω) ‘to light up, to make to burn, to kindle; to blaze, to burn fiercely’, δαίς ‘firebrand, pine-torch’, (Homeric) δάος ‘torch’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **tʰəhʷa*: South Abkhaz *a-tʰəjʷ* ‘monster swallowing sun or moon (during eclipse)’, *a-tʰəjʷ-k-ra* ‘solar/lunar eclipse’; Bzyp *a-tʰəjʷ*, *a-tʰəja* ‘monster swallowing sun or moon (during eclipse)’; Ahchypsy *a-tʰəjʷ* ‘monster swallowing sun or moon (during eclipse)’. Note: Labialization in Bzyp and Ahchypsy may be secondary.

133. Proto-Indo-European **tʰeh- [tʰah-]* (> **tʰā-*) ‘to flow’, **tʰeh-nu- [tʰah-nu-]* (> **tʰā-nu-*) ‘flowing water; river, stream’ (only in Indo-Iranian) (**h* = **ǵ₄*): Sanskrit *dā-na-m* ‘the fluid flowing from an elephant’s temples when in rut’, *dā-nu* ‘a fluid, a drop, dew’; Avestan *dānuš* ‘river, stream’; Ossetic *don* ‘water, river’. Also used in various river names: Don (Russian Дон), Dniepr (Russian Днепр), Dniestr (Russian Днестр), Danube, etc.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **tʰa*: Abzhywa *a-tʰ-rá* ‘diarrhea’; Bzyp *a-tʰ-a-rá* ‘diarrhea’.

134. Proto-Indo-European (extended form) **tʰer-bʰ-/tʰor-bʰ-/tʰr-bʰ-* ‘to bend, to twist (together)’: Sanskrit *drbhāti* ‘to string together, to arrange, to tie, to fasten’; Old English *tearflian* ‘to turn, to roll, to wallow’; Old High German *zerben* ‘to be twisted’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **tʰarə*: South Abkhaz *á-tʰ-ar-ra* ‘to be flexible, viscous, bending’; Abzhywa (reduplicated) *á-tʰ-ar-tʰ-ar-ra* ‘tall and lithe, elegant (of man)’. Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) **tʰarə-tʰarə*: Bzyp *á-tʰ-ar-tʰ-ar-ra* ‘tall and lithe, elegant (of man)’.

135. Proto-Indo-European **tʰes-/tʰos-* ‘to become weak, exhausted’ (only in Sanskrit): Sanskrit *dásyati* ‘to suffer want, to waste away, to perish; to become exhausted; to be ruined’, *dasana-m* ‘wasting, perishing, destroying’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **tʰašša* ‘to become weak/shaky’: Temirgoy *tʰāšša* ‘to become weak/shaky, unstable; vulnerable spot’; Kabardian *tʰāšša* ‘to become weak/shaky, unstable; vulnerable spot’; Bžedux *tʰāšša* (< **tʰašša*) ‘weak, exhausted’. Circassian (Bžedux) loan in Abkhaz: South Abkhaz *a-tʰ-áysa* ‘weak, languid, exhausted (often of an ill person)’; Abaza/Tapanta *tʰāšsa* ‘not strong, weak, poor’.

136. Proto-Indo-European **tʰew-/tʰow-/tʰu-* ‘to hit, to strike’: Old Irish *dorn* ‘fist’, *durni* ‘to strike with fists’; Welsh *dwrn* ‘fist’; Breton *dourn* ‘hand’; Old Icelandic *tjón* ‘damage, loss’, *týna* ‘to lose, to destroy, to put to death’, (reflexive) *týnast* ‘to perish’, *týning* ‘destruction’; Old English *tēona* ‘injury, suffering, injustice, wrong, insult, contumely, quarrel’, *tēonian* ‘to irritate’, *tēnan* ‘to annoy, to

irritate'; Old Saxon *tiono* 'evil, harm, injury, wrong, hostility, enmity', *gitiunian* 'to do wrong'; Latvian *düre*, *dūris* 'fist', *duŗu*, *dūru*, *duŗt* 'to sting, to thrust'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **t'awə* 'to bump (one's head)': Temirgoy *ya-t'awə* 'to bump (one's head)'.

137. Proto-Indo-European (**t'or-/t'r-*) (extended forms) **t'r-eA-* [**t'r-aA-*] > **t'rā-*; **t'r-em-/t'r-om-/t'r-ṃ-*; **t'r-ew-/t'r-ow-/t'r-u-* 'to run, to flow': Sanskrit *drāti* 'to run, to hasten', *drāmati* 'to run about, to roam, to wander', *drāvati* 'to run, to hasten', *dravā-h* 'running, flowing', *dravantī* 'river', *druta-h* 'speedy, swift'; Greek *δροσμός* 'flight, running away', (aor.) *ἔδραμον* 'to run, to move quickly', *δρόμος* 'course, running, race'; Gothic *trudan* 'to tread, to step'; Old Icelandic *troða* 'to tread'; Old English *tredan*, 'to tread, to step on, to trample', *treddian* 'to tread, to walk', *trod* (f. *trodu*) 'track, trace'; Old Frisian *treda* 'to tread'; Old Saxon *tredan* 'to tread'; Old High German *tretan* 'to tread', *trottōn* 'to run'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **t'ara* 'to sport, to gambol (of a horse)': Temirgoy *t'ara-n* 'to sport, to gambol (of a horse)'. Proto-Circassian **t'ərza* 'to sport, to gambol (of a horse)': Temirgoy *t'ərza* 'to sport, to gambol (of a horse)'.

138. Proto-Indo-European (**t'u^{2w}-o-*, **t'u^{2w}-i-* >) **t'(u)wo-*, **t'(u)wi-* 'two' (**^{2w} = *₂₁^w*): Sanskrit (m.) *dváu*, *dvā* (Vedic also *duváu*, *duvā*), (f./n.) *dvé* (Vedic also *duvé*), *dvi-* (in composition) 'two', *dviká-h* 'consisting of two', *dviḥ* 'twice'; Avestan (m.) *dva*, (f./n.) *baē* 'two', *biš* 'twice'; Greek *δύω* 'two' (uninflected *δύο*), *δίς* 'twice, doubly'; Latin *duo*, (f.) *duae* 'two', *bīnī* 'twofold, twice', *bis* 'twice'; Old Irish *dáu*, *dóu*, *dó* 'two', *dé-* (in composition) 'two-, double'; Old Welsh *dou* 'two'; Albanian (Gheg) (m.) *dy*, (f.) *dý* 'two'; Gothic (m.) *twai*, (f.) *twōs*, (n.) *twa* 'two'; Old Icelandic (m.) *tveir*, (f.) *tvær*, (n.) *tvau* 'two', *tvennr*, *tvinnr* 'consisting of two different things or kinds, twofold, in pairs', *tví-* (in compounds) 'twice, double', *tvisvar*, *tysvar* 'twice'; Old English (m.) *twēgen*, (f./n.) *twā*, (n.) *tū* 'two', *twi-* (prefix) 'two', *twinn* 'double', *twiwa* 'twice'; Old Frisian (m.) *twēne*, *tvēne*, (f./n.) *tva* 'two', *twi-* (prefix) 'twice, double', *twia* (adv.) 'twice, double'; Old High German (m.) *zwēne*, (f.) *zwā*, *zwō*, (n.) *zwei* 'two', *zwi-* (prefix) 'twice, double'; Lithuanian (m.) *dū*, (f.) *dvi* 'two'; Latvian (m./f.) *divi* 'two'; Old Prussian (m./f.) *dwai* 'two'; Old Church Slavic (m.) *dvā*, (f./n.) *dvě* 'two'; Hieroglyphic Luwian *tuwa-* 'two'; Lycian *kbi-*, (Milyan) *tbi-* 'two'.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **Tq''(a)* 'two': Kabardian *t'ʔə* 'two (twice)'; Bžedux *t''(a)* 'two (twice)'; Temirgoy *t'ə* 'two'; Ubykh *t'q''a* 'two'. Abkhaz *t'ə* (< **t'ə* < **t'q''ə*) 'two' (personal communication from John Colarusso).

139. Proto-Indo-European **we-/wō-* 'you' (dual and pl.): Sanskrit *vas* 'you' (acc. pl.), *vām* (acc.-dat.-gen. dual); Avestan *vā* 'you' (nom. dual), *vaēm* (nom. pl.), *vā* (encl. acc. pl.); Latin *vōs* 'you' (nom.-acc. pl.), *vestrum* (gen. pl.); Old Church Slavic *vy* 'you' (nom. pl.), *vasъ* (acc.-gen.-loc. pl.).

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **wa* 'you' (sg.): Bžedux *wa* 'you' (sg.); Kabardian *wa* 'you' (sg.). Common Abkhaz **wa(-rá)*: South Abkhaz *wa-rá* 'you' (male/human, non-human); Ashkharywa *wa-rá* 'you' (male/human, non-human); Abaza/Tapanta *wa-rá* 'you' (male/human, non-human).

140. Proto-Indo-European **wēh-* [**wāh-*]/**wāh-* > **wā-/wō-* 'to call, to cry out' (**₂₃*): Greek *ἤχῃ* (< **₂₃*) 'sound, noise'; Latin *vāgiō* 'to cry, to whimper'; Gothic *wōpjan* 'to call, to cry out'; Old Icelandic *apa* 'to cry, to shout; to call, to cry out (to someone)', *óp* 'shout, shouting; crying, weeping'; Old English *wēpan* 'to weep' (past participle *wōpen*), *wōp* 'weeping'; Old Frisian *wēpa* 'to cry aloud'; Old Saxon *wōpian* 'to bewail'; Old High German *wuoffen*, *wuofan* 'to bewail', *wuof* 'weeping, sobbing'; Old Church Slavic *vabljō*, *vabiti* 'to call, to entice'.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz *wáwə: South Abkhaz *a-wáw* ‘weeping, crying (at funerals)’; Abaza/Tapanta *waw* ‘cry’. Common Abkhaz (reduplicated) *wəwə: Abaza/Tapanta *wəw-ra* ‘to howl’, *wəw* ‘howl’; South Abkhaz *a-wwə-ra* ‘to howl’.

141. Proto-Indo-European *wed^h-/*wod^h- ‘to strike’: Sanskrit *vadh-* ‘to strike, to slay, to kill, to put to death, to destroy, to murder’, *vadhar-* ‘a destructive weapon, the weapon or thunderbolt of Indra’; Avestan *vadar-* ‘weapon (for striking)’; Lithuanian *vedegà* ‘adz’; Tocharian B *wāt-* ‘to fight’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz *wadəššə: South Abkhaz *a-wadəššə-ra* ‘(to break) into pieces’.

142. Proto-Indo-European *wel-/*wol-/*wl- ‘to moisten, to wet, to flow’: (extended forms) *wel-k^h-/*wol-k^h-/*wl-k^h-; *wel-g^h-/*wol-g^h-/*wl-g^h-; *wel-k’-/*wol-k’-/*wl-k’- ‘to wet, to moisten’: Old English *weolcen*, *wolcen* ‘cloud’; German *Wolke* ‘cloud’; Old Church Slavic *vлага* ‘moisture’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian *wala ‘cloud’: Kabardian *wāla* ‘cloud’.

143. Proto-Indo-European *wel-/*wol-/*wl- ‘to turn, to roll, to revolve’: Sanskrit *vālati*, *vālate* ‘to turn, to turn around, to turn to’; Armenian *gelum* ‘to twist, to press’, *glem* ‘to roll’, *glor* ‘round’; Greek εἰλέω (< *Jελ-ν-έω) ‘to roll up, to pack close, to wind, to turn around, to revolve’, εἰλόω ‘to enfold, to enwrap’; Latin *volvō* ‘to roll, to wind, to turn around, to twist around’; Old Irish *fillid* ‘to fold, to bend’; Gothic *af-walwjan* ‘to roll away’, *at-walwjan* ‘to roll to’; Old Icelandic *valr* ‘round’, *velta* ‘to roll’, *válka* ‘to toss to and fro, to drag with oneself’, *válk* ‘tossing to and fro (especially at sea)’; Old English *wielwan* ‘to roll’, *wealwian* ‘to roll’, *wealte* ‘a ring’, *wealcan* ‘to roll, to fluctuate (intr.); to roll, to whirl, to turn, to twist (tr.)’, *wealcian* ‘to roll (intr.)’, *gewealc* ‘rolling’, *welung* ‘revolution (of a wheel)’; Middle English *walken* ‘to walk, to roll, to toss’, *walkien* ‘to walk’; Middle Dutch *welteren* ‘to roll’, *walken* ‘to knead, to press’; Old High German *walzan* ‘to roll, to rotate, to turn about’, *walken*, *walchen* ‘to knead, to roll paste’; Tocharian B *wāl-* ‘to curl’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian *wāla ‘to totter, to reel’: Bžedux *wāla* ‘to totter, to reel’; Temirgoy *wāla* ‘wave; to undulate’.

144. Proto-Indo-European *wen-/*won-/*wñ- ‘to dwell, to abide, to remain’: Proto-Germanic *wunan ‘to dwell, to abide, to remain’ > Old Icelandic *una* ‘to be content in a place; to dwell, to abide’; Old English *wunian* ‘to dwell, to remain, to continue (in time and space); to inhabit, to remain in’, *wunung* ‘dwelling (act and place)’; Old High German *wonēn*, *wonan*, *wanēn* ‘to dwell, to remain’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian *wəna ‘house’: Bžedux *wəna* ‘house’; Kabardian *wəna* ‘house’. Note: Abkhaz also has *ʕəna* ‘house’, which points to Proto-Northwest Caucasian *ḡuna (personal communication from John Colarusso).

145. Proto-Indo-European *wer-/*wor-/*wř- ‘to be turbulent, agitated, stirred up, raging’ (> ‘to strike or dash against’) (only in Greek: extended form: *wrāg^h- < *wr-eA-g^h- [*wr-aA-g^h-*]): Greek (Ionic) ῥάσσω, (Attic) ῥάπτω (< *Jrāχ-ιω) ‘to strike, to dash, to push’; (Ionic) ῥηχίη, (Attic) ῥαχία ‘the sea breaking on the shore, especially the flood-tide; the roar of waves breaking on the shore’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian *warə ‘wave; turbulent’: Temirgoy *warə* ‘wave; turbulent’; Kabardian *war* ‘wave; turbulent’.

146. Proto-Indo-European *wer-/*wor- ‘to say, to speak, to tell’: Greek εἶπω (< *Jεριω) ‘to say, to speak, to tell’; Hittite (3rd sg. pres.) *ú-e-ri-ya-zi* ‘to invite, to summon, to name’; Palaic (3rd sg. pres.) *ú-e-er-ti* ‘to say, to call’; Latin *verbum* ‘word’; Gothic *waurd* ‘word’; Old Icelandic *orð* ‘word’, *orðigr* ‘wordy’, *yrða* ‘to speak’; Old English *word* ‘word’, *ge-wyrd(e)* ‘conversation’, *wordig* ‘talkative’; Old

Saxon *word* ‘word’; Dutch *woord* ‘word’; Old High German *wort* ‘word’; Old Prussian (nom. sg. m.) *wīrds*, *wīrds* ‘word’ (acc. sg. m. *wīrdan*); Lithuanian *vardas* ‘name’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **war-š^o/sár*: Bzyp *a-war-š^oár* ‘to speak noisily, loudly’; Abaza/Tapanta *war-sár* ‘to speak noisily, loudly’.

147. Proto-Indo-European **wes-no-m* ‘price’, **wes-* ‘to buy, to sell’: Latin *vēnum* (< **wes-no-m*) ‘sale’; Sanskrit *vasná-m* ‘price, value’; Hittite *uš-ša-ni-ya-zi* ‘to put up for sale’; Greek ὄνος (< **wós-no-s*) ‘price’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **wasa* ‘price’: Bžedux *wāsa* ‘price’; Kabardian *wāsa* ‘price’.

148. Proto-Indo-European (adj.) **wordh-o-s* ‘grown, full-grown, tall, upright’, (adj.) **wrdh-o-s* ‘raised, upright, tall’, (verb stem) **werdh-/wordh-/wrdh-* ‘to raise, to elevate; to grow, to increase’: Sanskrit *vārdha-h* ‘increasing, growing, thriving’, *vrddhá-h* ‘grown, become larger or longer or stronger, increased, augmented, great, large; experienced, wise, learned; eminent in, distinguished by’, *vrddhi-h* ‘growth, increase, augmentation, rise, advancement’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **warq:ə* ‘nobleman’: Temirgoy *warqə* ‘nobleman’; Kabardian *warq* ‘nobleman’. Note: These may be late loans from Indo-Aryan (personal communication from John Colarusso).

149. Proto-Indo-European **yenH-ther-/yñH-ther-* ‘female in-law by marriage: sister-in-law, husband’s brother’s wife’: Sanskrit *yātar-* ‘husband’s brother’s wife’; Greek (f.) ἐνάτηρ ‘husband’s brother’s wife’, (Homeric) (pl.) εἰνατέρες ‘wives of brothers or of husband’s brothers, sisters-in-law’; Latin (pl.) *ianitricēs* ‘wives of brothers’; Old Lithuanian *jėntė* ‘husband’s brother’s wife’; Old Church Slavic *jětry* ‘husband’s brother’s wife’.

Northwest Caucasian: Common Abkhaz **jānə*: Abzhywa *a-jān* ‘female (of animals)’.

150. Proto-Indo-European **yeth-/yoth-* ‘to exert oneself, to endeavor, to strive’: Sanskrit *yātati*, *yātate* ‘to exert oneself, to endeavor; to make, to produce’, *yāti-h* ‘a sage of subdued passions’, *yatná-h* ‘effort, endeavor, exertion, energy, diligence, perseverance’; Avestan *yateiti*, *yatayeiti* ‘to strive after; to place in order’; Tocharian B *yāt-* ‘to be capable of; to have power over, to tame’.

Northwest Caucasian: Proto-Circassian **yat^ha* ‘to rage (of storm), to swell (of wound); to let oneself go, to become insolent’: Temirgoy *yāta* ‘to rage (of storm), to swell (of wound); to let oneself go, to become insolent’; Kabardian *yāta* ‘to rage (of storm), to swell (of wound); to let oneself go, to become insolent’.

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Indo-European-North Caucasian Isoglosses¹

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To the North Caucasian languages we assign, following N. Trubetzkoy (Trubeckoj 1930), two language families: Northeast Caucasian (with the Lezgian, Tsezian, Andian, Lak and Nakh subgroups; separate subgroups are defined by the Dargi, Lak, Khinalug and Avar languages, of which Avar specifically is close to the Andi languages, forming together with them an Ando-Avar unity); and Northwest Caucasian (with the Abkhaz-Abaza and Adyghe subgroups, and the Ubykh language forming a separate subgroup). At the present time, following the works of I. M. Diakonoff and S. A. Starostin (D'jakonov and Starostin 1988) and V. V. Ivanov (Ivanov 1984), likewise with a high degree of certainty one may assign to Northeast Caucasian the Hurro-Urartian languages, and to the Northwest Caucasian languages the Hattic language (although the position of the latter is not yet fully clarified: quite possibly it may not fit directly into the makeup of the northwest Caucasian languages, but rather form with them a unity not unlike the Ando-Avar unity).

The progress achieved at present in the field of the comparative-historical phonetics of the North Caucasian languages³ enables us to enlist North Caucasian data

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2. The author expresses deep indebtedness to V.A. Dybo, Vyach. Vs. Ivanov and V.È. Orel for reviewing the manuscript and offering a number of valuable observations.

3. The foundations of the comparative-historical phonetics of the North Caucasian languages were laid in the classic works of N. Trubetzkoy (Trubeckoj 1922; 1926; 1930; 1931). During the past twenty years many valuable researches in this field have appeared: it is sufficient to cite the works of T.E. Gudava (1965), V.K. Gigineishvili (Giginejšvili 1977), B.B. Talibov (1980), A.I. Abdokov (1976; 1983), D.S. Imnaishvili (Imnaijšvili 1977), A. Kuypers (1963; 1975), A.K. Shagirov (Šagirov 1977). The author of the present work together with S.L. Nikolaev produced a number of reconstructions of intermediate proto-language states (Proto-Lezgian, Proto-Tsezian, Proto-East Caucasian, Proto-West Caucasian) and put forward a new variant of North Caucasian reconstruction. At the present time an etymological dictionary of the North Caucasian languages, incorporating some 800 common North Caucasian roots (and as well about 2000 separate East Caucasian and West Caucasian lexical reconstructions) is being prepared for publication. [Ed. note: this book was later published as Nikola(y) & Starostin 1994.]

for various types of researches in the field of genetic and areal connections among the languages of the Caucasus (earlier this was difficult due to the extensive restructuring of the phonetic systems of the present-day North Caucasian languages, as a result of which the necessity for accurate North Caucasian reconstructions was especially sharply felt). In the present work, we attempt to analyze the interrelationship of the North Caucasian and Indo-European languages.

The absence of a genetic relationship between the North Caucasian and Indo-European languages is obvious: in the basic lexicons of these languages no correspondences of whatever sort exist, and the phonological and morphological systems differ fundamentally as well. Consequently, if we encounter resemblances of vocabulary between the North Caucasian and Indo-European languages (whether in their present stage of development or in their reconstructed states) the discussion clearly must be about borrowings.

Chronologically the most recent stratum of “Indo-Europeanisms” in the North Caucasian languages consists of numerous borrowings from contemporary Russian. The stratum preceding it consists of Iranianisms (borrowed from middle Persian and modern Persian, and also from Ossetian), these having penetrated the North Caucasian languages starting in the earliest centuries of the Christian era. Also to be noted is the large number of Armenianisms in the Udi language (Lezgian subgroup), several of which spilled over into the neighboring Lezgian languages (cf. Vinogradova and Klimov 1979). All of these borrowings, as a rule, are easily identified, and we will not be dwelling on them (although they without doubt constitute a needed field of research).

Of far greater interest are the instances of “Indo-Iranianisms” in the North Caucasian languages. Borrowings from some ancient Indo-Iranian language (languages?) are evident in the East Caucasian languages — although in a comparatively small number — of which the following examples testify:

1) PEC **u_{aran}-/*u_{aral}-* ‘camel’ (Av., Lak *warani*, Darg. *walri*, Lezg. *lawar*): OInd. *varāṇa-* ‘camel’ (see Klimov 1971: 228).

2) PEC **v_{ēl}θi⁴* ‘thick felt, felt cloak’ (Arch. *warti*, Tab. *verč*, Lezg. *lit*, Darg., Ak. *warhi*, Chir. *warse*, Lak *warsi*, Av. *burtina*, Chech. *werta*, Ing. *ferta* etc.: Avest. *varāsa* ‘hair’ [single strand] (PIE **u_{ol}ko-*, cf. as well OInd. *val̥ça-* ‘twig, wither’, OSl. *vlasъ* etc., see WP: I, 297) — see Klimov 1972, 354 (Kartvelian parallels are found there as well, for which the author presumes an East Caucasian source).

3) PEC **werše* ‘bull-calf, male calf; male’ (Av. *basi* ‘calf, Akhv. *buša*, Tind. *boha* ‘bull’, Chech., Btsb. *borš* ‘bull’; Chech. *börša* ‘male’, Arch. *boš-or* ‘husband, man’; cf. as well Ur. *wāša* ‘people, men’): OInd. *vṛṣa-* ‘ox’, *vṛṣan-*, *vṛṣṇi-* ‘male’, Avest. *varāšna-* ‘male’ (PIE **u_{ers}-*, cf. Lat. *verrēs* ‘wild boar’, Lith. *veřšis* ‘calf’, Latv. *versis* ‘ox’ [WP: I, 269]). The Indo-European root usually is considered a verbal (cf. OInd. *varṣati* ‘be rainy’, Gk. *ὠρέω* < **u_{ors}-e_iō* ‘to wet’), but cf. the Nostratic etymology [Dolgopolsky 1974, 171]; in any case the direction of borrowing (from Indo-European to East Caucasian) raises no doubt here.

4) PEC **wV_{EV}rV* ‘young one (up to 1 year)’ (Tsakh. *vudra* ‘kid up to one year’), Tsez. *beduro* ‘bear cub’, Btsb. *bader*, Chech. *bēr* ‘child’, and others): OInd. **vatara-* in *sa-*

4. The phoneme **θ* is reconstructed only for PEC and in a very small number of roots (apparently not ancient).

vātara- ‘having that very calf’ (PIE **uetero-*, cf. also Germ. **wiþru-* ‘year-old lamb; ram’).⁵ The Indo-European formation derives from PIE **uet-* ‘year; old’ (for the Nostratic etymology see MSSNJa: 337).

5) PEC **bārzV* ‘mountain, hill’ (Georgian *bizu*, Bezht. *bizo* ‘mountain’, Chech. *barz*, Ing. *boarz* ‘hillock, knoll, mound’, Lezg. *barza* ‘high-mountain meadow’), OInd. *bṛhant-* ‘high’, Avest. *bərəzant-*, *bərəz-* ‘high, mountain’, Pers. *burz* ‘mountain’ (PIE **bherǵh-* ‘high, to rise, to tower’, from whence also Arm *barjr* ‘high’; cf. Irish *bri* ‘hill’, OHG *berg* ‘mountain’, Slav. **bergъ* ‘bank [of a stream]’, Hitt. *parku-* ‘high’ and so on). For a reliable Nostratic etymology of the PIE root see Illich-Svitych 1971, 177. Besides the above-enumerated East Caucasian forms, Lak *barzunfiw* ‘heights, mountains’ corresponds exactly, apparently, to the Indo-Iranian participle form in *-nt* (see above).

6) PEC **māldwV* 6 ‘a kind of drink’ (Lez. *med*, Tab. *med*, Dyub. *malj* ‘syrup’, God. *medi*, Bagv. *mer* ‘beer, bouza’; compare also Lak (Bartx. dialect) *mald* ‘sperm’): OInd. *madhu-* ‘honey’, Avest. *maðu* ‘wine from berries’ (PIE **medhu-* ‘honey’; on the etymology of this root see below, 5.14).

With time, undoubtedly, it will become possible to enlarge this list somewhat.

That there would be an absence of old Iranianisms in the West Caucasian languages was presupposed by N. Trubetzkoy (Trubeckoj 1921). Most of his etymologies were submitted to a critique, conducted quite fairly, by G. Dumézil (Dumézil 1963).

In his turn, however, Dumézil in that work proposed Indo-European etymologies for a number of West Caucasian bases, but it is difficult, nevertheless, to agree with the majority of them; several of them will be examined below. On the whole we must maintain that so far any hopeful Indo-Iranian etymologies for whatever West Caucasian roots are lacking.

However, if we depart from the list of more or less late “Indo-Europeanisms” in the North Caucasian languages enumerated above, there still remains a very large group of lexical coincidences between PEC and PIE, the majority of which, as far as we know, have not figured in the specialized literature. To begin with we introduce a list of these instances, and then we attempt to offer corresponding linguistic commentaries.

1. NAMES OF ANIMALS

1.1. PIE **(H)aiǵ-* ‘she-goat’ (Gk. *αἴξ*, Arm. *aic*, Alb. *dhi* < **aiǵitiā* ‘she-goat’, Avest. *īzaena-* ‘leathern’ [see WP, v. 1, p. 8]); a variant of that root is, in all probability, PIE **(H)aǵ(o)* ‘she-goat, he-goat’ (Old Ind. *aja-* ‘he-goat’, *ajā* ‘she-goat’, cf. Pers. *azak* ‘she-goat’, Lith. *ožys*, Lett. *āzis* ‘he-goat’, Old Prus. *wosee* ‘she-goat’; Alb. *edh* ‘she-goat’, Old Sl. *azno* (**azbno*) ‘she-goat’ [cf. WP, v. 1, p. 38].⁷ PNC **Hējzu* ‘she-goat, he-goat’ (Darg. Ak.

5. Eng. *wether*, also in *bell-wether* [Ed.].

6. Note: the symbol /l/ in these words is not the high front vowel, as might be expected. It is the *paločka*, a convention of Russian Caucasology that indicates a pharyngealized vowel or consonant. Thus /āl/ represents the vowel /ä/ with a pharyngeal quality, /al/ is pharyngeal /a/, etc. Also transcribed as /ǣ/, /a/, etc. [Ed.]

7. The PIE variants **(H)aiǵ-* and **(H)aǵo-*, the correlation of which within Indo-European is inexplicable, could in principle be due to their having arisen simultaneously as a borrowing from Proto-East-Caucasian (or, possibly, as a borrowing from several dialects which had differentiated among themselves). Concerning the etymological source of the Albanian names for ‘she-goat’ and ‘goat-kid’ see [Orël 1984].

ʿeža, Chir. ʿača ‘she-goat’; PN *ʔāwstV ‘she-goat up to 1 year of age’ > Chec., Ing. *oasta*; PAK *ačā ‘he-goat’ > Adyg. *āča*, Kab *āža*). For a comparison of the Adyghe and Indo-European material (but without involving the East Caucasian data) see Dumézil 1963: 13.

1.2. PIE **eḱwo* ‘horse’ (OInd. *açva-*, Gk. ἵππος, Lat. *equus*, OIr. *ech*, Old Eng. *eoh*, Lith. *ašvā*, OLith. *ešva* ‘mare’, Hier. Hitt. *ašuwā-* and so on; [see WP: I, 113]: PEC **hīnčwV* ‘horse’ (PL **hīnšw* > Arch. *noš* ‘horse’, Lezg. *šiw* ‘steed’, Khin. *pši*, Darg. *urči*, Lak *čwu*, Av. *ču*; Proto-Andi **ʔičwā* > Akhv. and Tind. *ičwā*, And. *iča* and so on; Proto-Western Caucasian **čwā* > Abkh. *a-čā*, Ub. *čā*, Ad. *šā*, and Kab. *šā* ‘horse’; cf. also Hurr. *eššā* ‘horse’.

Besides the Indo-European form one can note as well Sum. *anšu*, *anše* ‘donkey, ass’ = Proto-Lezg. **hīnšw* (that the Sumerian word is a borrowing is indicated by its irregular vocalism – a feature impossible in the native Sumerian lexicon). “Mediterranean” names for the ass (Gk. ὄνος < **ohono-s* < **osono-s*, Lat. *asinus* ‘ass’), all of which Arm. *eš* ‘ass’ hints at (cf. WP, *ibid.*), have, no doubt, a Hurro-Urartian source of the type **eššā-na* (with a typical postpositive formation in *-n^s*).

1.3. PIE **kaḡo-* (~*o-*) ‘goat, she-goat’ (OSl *koza*, *kozьbь*; OEng. *hēcen*, cf. OLGerm. *hōken* ‘goat [dim.]’ (with an unclear vowel lengthening), Goth. *hakuls*, OLGerm. *hachul* ‘coat [article of clothing]’ (< ‘leathern’), Alb. *kedh*, *kec* ‘kid’; [see Toller 1921, 526; Feist, 238-239]: PEC **qolcV* ‘goat, she-goat, kid’⁹ (Lezg. *veç* ‘kid’, Darg., Lak *qalca* ‘he-goat’; Georg. *qasa* ‘hornless animal’ also, apparently, belongs here).

1.4. PIE **kol(i)-* ‘puppy, cub, whelp; young one’ (Gk. σκύλαξ, Hes.¹⁰ κύλλα ‘puppy, cub, whelp; young one’; Lith. *kālė*, *kalė* ‘bitch’, Alb. *kël’üş* ‘young one; puppy, cub, whelp’, cf. Irish *cuilén* (**koli-gno-* ‘young one’, WP: I, 445; Frisk II, 741; Fraenkel, p.

8. The morpheme *-na* in Hurro-Urartian plays the role of a definite article and therefore very frequently determines the shape of nouns. Historically it goes back, apparently, to a Proto-East Caucasian (and, possibly, to a Proto-North Caucasian) indicator of an oblique noun base **-nV*, well represented in contemporary East-Caucasian languages (in West Caucasian only relic formations with this formant survive). It is very likely that in PEC and PNC the morpheme **-nV*, besides indicating an oblique base, also played the role as well of an indicator of definiteness. Attention is called to the fact that among the Indo-European lexemes examined in the present work rather a large number of them have a suffixal prevalence of **-n-*, of which fact examples 2.10 (**pērs-nā*), 2.14 (**stom-en-*), 2.15 (**s/p/elḡh-en-*) and 3.14 (**bharsīno-*) testify: as for the identity of the latter, namely PEC **bVrč-inV*; 3.23 (**(H)enk^w-no-* > Slav. **ęčvnb*, Gk. ὄμπνη), 4.10 (**g^werā-n-*), 5.6 (**mes-no-*). Compare as well the heteroclitic bases 2.2 **liek^w-r*/**liek^w-no-* and 5.11 **kek^w-r*/**kek^w-no-*, upon which the nominative shape could have been developed still later, following the Indo-European model of that time.

9. Many of the examples introduced in the present article are based only on East Caucasian data (separate West Caucasian -Indo-European isoglosses exist as well, but in a very small number: see examples 4.1, 4.15, 5.13). This, however, hardly speaks of any specific ties between PEC and PIE. It is more likely that we are dealing here with roots the reflexes of which in the West Caucasian languages have been lost. The fact is that the specific character of the contemporary West Caucasian languages (just as with the reconstructed PWC) has resulted from a sharp contraction of the number of roots in general on account of an extraordinary growth development of root composition, such that many of the original roots are now lost, having been replaced by periphrastic formations of various types. This, in part, explains the quite small common root stock of the West Caucasian languages (splendidly serving, however, a large part of the lexemes in the contemporary West Caucasian languages) and the comparatively small number of reconstructed PNC roots (around 800 out of more than 2000 PEC roots).

10. *Hesychius of Alexandria [translator’s note].

208): PEC **q̣VIV* 'young one' (Lak *q̣uli* 'young one'; PTs. **q̣ara* 'child; infant' > Khvar. *q̣ale*, Inkh. *q̣ala*, Georg. *q̣ara*, Bezht. *q̣owa*, Tl. *q̣ora*).

The comparison is admissible if in PIE the original meaning is in actuality 'puppy, cub, whelp; young one' (the morphological structure of the formations presented do in principle permit one other explanation).

1.5. PIE **dik-/dig-* 'she-goat' (OHGerm. *ziga* [base in *-n-*] 'she-goat', OEng. *ticcen*, OGerm. *zickin* < **tiknīn-*) 'she-goat [dim.]', Arm. *tik*, Gk. Hes. *διζα* 'she-goat', WP I, 814; Frisk: I, 390-391): PEC **fVq̣V* 'he-goat, kid' (PTS **f̥iq̣wə* 'goat kid up to 1 year' > Inkh. *f̥iq̣o*, Bezht. *ṭōq̣ā*, Hunz. *ṭōq̣-či*, Av *de^sen* (< **deq̣en*) 'he-goat'; possibly belonging here as well is Hurrian *tayə* 'man [male person]': D'yakonov and Starostin 1988.

1.6. PIE **peku-* 'livestock' (OInd *paçu*, Avest. *pasu-*, Lat *pecu*, OHGer. *fihu*, OEng. *feoh*, Lith. *pekus*, see WP: II, 16): PNC **pāHāXwV* 'livestock' (basically small horned animals [sheep and goats]: Arch. *balX* 'ram', PTs. **biX* > Tsez. *beX* 'sheep [collective]', Hunz., Bezht. *biX*. 'sheep [sing.]', Av. *buruṭ* < **buṭ-ur* < **buX-ur* 'kid', And. *beXiri* 'deer' [sing.], PN **bfioḵ* 'he-goat' > Chec., Ing. Chech. *bož*, Btsb. *b^sok*; PAK **bLa* 'flock' in the compound **X^wə-bLa* 'flock of sheep' [where *X^wə* is 'sheep'], Ad. *X^wə-bya*, Kab. *X^wə-bža*).

Despite WP: II, 16 PIE **peku-* is hardly related to **pek-* 'comb, card'. Also doubtful as well is a Nostratic origin of the Indo-European root (see MCCNJa. 365) – for a root with a meaning such as this it is better to suppose a migrational character.

1.7. PIE **porko-* 'pig, swine, suckling-pig (domestic)' (Lat. *porcus*, Mİran. *orc*, OLGerm. *far(a)h*, Lith. *paršas* 'hog', Slav. **porę* 'suckling-pig' [WP: II, 78]): PNC **wālXwə* 'pig, swine, sow' (PL **wālX^w* > Arch. *boIX*, Lezg. *wak*, Ag. *wāk*, Ud. *boIq* and so on 'pig, swine'; Lak *burḵ*; PTs **buIXV* > Tsez. *beXo*, Gin. *boXi*, Hunz. *buXu* and so on; Btsb. *buruḵ* 'suckling-pig'; PAK **Lawə* (by metathesis < **wālXə*) > Ad. *Lawə*, Kab. *Law* 'pig, swine, sow').

An East Caucasian source is supposed by G. A. Klimov (Klimov 1971, 224-225) for Geor. *bur(w)ak-* 'adolescent suckling-pig'; that area is also under consideration regarding the question of the correlation between the Nakh-Dagestanian forms and PIE **porko-*.

1.8. PIE **ster-* 'barren, sterile' (of animals), infertile (OInd. *starí-* 'infertile cow; heifer'; Arm. *sterj*, *sterd* 'infertile (of animals)'; Gk. *στεῖρα* 'the infertile one (f.)'; Alb. *štjeřë* 'young cow; lamb'; Lat. *sterilis* 'infertile'; Goth. *stairō* 'the infertile one, the barren one (f.)', MHGerm. *sterke* 'cow that has not calved, heifer', see WP: II, 640): PEC **ʔHēwāIV* 'heifer' (Av. *ʔačar*, PA **čora* > And. *čora*, Tind, Kar. and others *čara* 'heifer, 'one that is weak, not a sure bet'; PN **ʔasse* 'calf (up to one year)' > Chech. *ěsa*, Ing *ʔasa*; PL (with metathesis) **luča* heifer > Tab. *lič*, Ag. *luč*, Tsah. *vuče* and others; Darg., Chir. *luč*, probably < Ag.).

The origin of PIE **ster-* 'infertile one (f.), heifer' from **ster-* 'hard; rigid, stiff, stern' (WP: II, 640) is an obvious example of folk etymology.

1.9. PIE **g^{*}ēb(h)-* / **g^{*}ob(h)-* (with irregular ablaut relations) 'toad, frog' (Slav. **žaba*, OPrus. *gabawo* 'toad', Lat. [< Osc.-Umbr.] *būfō* 'frog', Mid. High German *quappe* 'burbot, eel-pout' etc. [WP: I, 674; Vasmer: I, 31, Walde, 74]): PEC **GG(w)ṼIpV* 'frog, a kind of worm [fem.]' (PL **qolp* 'frog' > Lezg. *qib*, Tab. *ʔlub*, Rut. *ʔlib*, Kryz. *qub* and others; PN **qōpV* 'trichina, trichinosis' > Chech. *qōba*, Ing. *qop*; Av. *qob* 'malaria').

Completely unclear is the relation to the Indo-European root of the Kartvelian forms (Laz. *mžvabu* 'toad', Megr. *žvabu* 'frog' [Čikobava 1938, 118; Klimov 1981, 169]):

direct borrowing from Slavic languages is improbable, whereas if it is a case of it being of greater antiquity the initial consonant in Kartvelian is incomprehensible.

1.10. PIE **pisk/peisk-* 'fish' (Lat. *piscis*, Goth. *fisks*, OIr. *iasc*, ? Slav. **pisk-orjъ* 'gudgeon, eel' [WP: II, 11]; otherwise on the Slavic form see Vasmer: III, 267): PNC **pVšwV* 'fish' (PTs. **biš^wV* > Tsez *besuro*, *bes^wiro*, Hin. *besuro*, Hunz. *bisa*, Bezht. *bisa*; PWC **pəšV* 'fish' > Ub. *psa*; PAK **p̄cā* > Ad. *pca*, Kab. *b3a* large fish; PAT **pəśa* > Abkh., Bz. *a-psə-3*, Abaz. *ps-lač^wa* 'fish').

Whenever a given comparison of -k- in its Indo-European form is made it follows that the suffixal form (the old diminutive suffix?) should be taken into account. For a comparison of the West Caucasian material (not including the Tsez forms) with Indo-European see Dumézil 1963, 18.

1.11. PIE **keḱ-/keḱ-* 'weasel, polecat' (OInd. *kaṣa-*, *kaṣikā* 'weasel', Lith. *šėškas*, Latv. *sesks* 'polecat' (WP: I, 381; Fraenkel, 976-977); an irregular variant **ḡeḡh-* is reflected in OInd. *jāhakā* 'polecat' (or 'hedgehog' [Mayrhofer, 426; WP: I, 570]): PNC **čVr3V* 'marten, weasel, squirrel' (PL **čorč-ol* 'marten' > Tab. *črčul*, *čurčul*, Ag. *čurčul*, Lezg. *cučul*; Av. dial. *zazi-^čunḱ* 'squirrel' (*^čunḱ* 'mouse'), PN **čeca-* > Czech. *čeca-joqqurg* 'weasel', Ing. *cic-χolg* 'rat'; PWC **čV3V* 'marten, weasel (with various assimilations in the reflexes) > Ub. *čaca* 'beaver', PAK **čə3a* 'marten' > Ad. *cəza*, Kab. *3ə3a*; PAT **čə3V* > Abaz. *3ə3əc* 'weasel', Abkh. **a-pš-č3a*, Bukv. 'red marten' > *a-pš3a* 'weasel').

Borrowing from a Turkic source for the Adyghe form is ruled out (despite A. K. Shagirov [Šagirov 1977: I, 168]).

2. NAMES OF BODY PARTS

2.1. PIE **(H)ang-* 'hip, ankle' (OInd. *aṅga-* 'member, part of the body'; OHGerm. *ancha*, *enka* 'hip, tubular bone', OIc. *ekkja* 'ankle, heel' (Germ. **ankjōn-*), cf. also Germ. **ankulan-* 'ankle' > OHGerm. *enchila*, OIc. *qkkla* and so on [WP: I, 61]: PEC **hlānqqV* 'hip, part of the leg' [PL **?aq* > Arch. *aq* 'leg; rear leg of an animal'; Tab. Dyub. *aq* 'hip [of a man, animal]', rear leg [of an animal]', Ag. *av* 'hip; calf [of the leg]'; PA **?anqu* > And. *aqu* 'hip', Tind. *anqu* 'knee bone'; Czech. *hōq-am* 'calyx [anatom.]').

WP: I, 61 relates to this (with a question-mark) PIE **ang-(lo-)* 'corner' (Arm. *ankiun*, Lat. *angulus*, Slav. *oglv*) and considers the root **ang-* a variant of PIE **ank-* 'to bend', which is doubtful (especially in view of the Caucasian parallels).

2.2. PIE **(l)ieḱ-* 'liver' (OInd. *yákṛt*, Gk. *ἥπαρ*, Lat. *iecur*; Lith. *jėknos*, *jāknos*, Latv. *akne*; the Arm. form *leard* and Germ. form **lifar-* may point to the **l-*, and cf. as well OPrus. *lagno*, although this may just be a slip of the pen in place of *jagno* (Toporov 1980, 11; WP: I, 105; Benveniste 1935); PEC **lāHāχwV* 'liver' (PL **lāχ* > Tab. *liḱ*, Lezg. *leq*, Bud. *leq* and others; PA **riχa-jiχ* > Akhv. *riχajχi*, Tind. *relaχ*, And. *reχiχi* and others; PN **dVHVχḱ* > Ing. *dijχk*, Czech. *do^χaχ*; with metathesis Av. *ṭul* (< **χul*); cf. as well as Ur. *zelda* (< **χ-*) 'liver').

V. M. Illich-Svitych (OSNJ^a: II, 17) separates the Armenian and Germanic forms from the remaining Indo-European forms, deriving them as being supposedly from Nostratic **l/e/pA* 'spleen'; in view of the PEC form, however, deriving all the Indo-European forms from PIE **lieḱ^w-r-*, as proposed by Benveniste (Benveniste 1935: 182), appears more satisfactory.

2.3. PIE **H₂elānā* 'hair, wool, fur' (OInd. *úrṇā*; Gk. *λήνοϛ*; Lat. *lāna*; Goth. *wulla*, OHGerm. *wolla* and so on; Lith. *vilna*, Latv. *vilna*; OSl *vlъna*; Welsh *gwlân*, Mlr. *olann* and others; Hitt. *hulana-*; see WP: I, 296): PEC **Āwāhni* 'hair, wool' (PN **kān* spring hair, wool, fur' > Ing. *ka*, Chech. *kan*; Av. *Āuh* in *Āuh baqize* 'flay, skin'; Kar. *lūji*, Tok. *luni* 'hair [strand]'; PTs. **lū* 'hair, wool, fur' > Gin. *lu-s*, Hunz. *lū*, Bezht. *lu* and others; Khin. *ka* 'hair, wool, fur'; PL **laj* 'wool' (of sheep)' (Arch. *ol*, Tab. *xa*, Khyur. *xaj*, Ag. *xej*, Burshch. *š:i*, Tsakh. *xa*, Ud. *xa*).

The segmental structure of the PIE and the PEC forms is identical (on the PIE **l* = PEC **Ā* correspondence see below) with the exception of the position of the laryngeal (in PIE in the initial, in PEC in the medial)¹¹.

2.4. PIE **kais-* 'hairs' (OInd. *kesara-* 'hairs, mane', Lat. *caesariēs* hairs of the head'; [Mayrhofer: 268; Walde: 81]; cf. also, perhaps, Hitt. *kišri-* 'something which is hairy, wooly, furry; hair, wool, fur?' [WP: I, 329; Kronasser 1956: 64]; the words: OSl. *kosa*, *kosmъ*, Lith. *kasà* 'koca', OIc. *haddr* (**hazda-*) 'feminine hairs' may represent contamination of the root **kais-* and the root **kes-* 'to comb', from which the words usually are derived, see WP: I, 449: PEC **kwVsV* 'braid, hairs' (Tab. *kuš* 'braid'; Av. *k^was* 'hair, wool, fur'; Tsez. *kos* 'cock's comb'; PWC **k^was(w)V/*sVk^wa* 'mane, crown' > Abkh. *á-k^wsə* 'crown', PAK **sák^w* > Ad. *sak^w*, Kab. *sok^w* 'mane').

In connection with the Indo-European words with suffixal *-r-* a series of East Caucasian derivatives with the suffix **-IV* can be noted (on the correspondence PNC **l* = PIE **r* see below), cf. Darg. Sirg. *kusala* 'wing', Btsb. *karsā* (**kas-VI-*) 'wattled rope of goat's hair' and others.

2.5. PIE **kenk-* 'part of the leg' (Lith *kenklė* 'hollow, depression under the knee'; Germ. **hanha-* 'heel'; knee tendon' [WP: I, 401; Fraenkel, 239]): PNC **qāmqa* 'a part of the foot' (PL **qāmqa(a)* 'knee' > Tab. *qāmqa*, Ar. *q^waq^w*, Rut. *q^waq^w*; Darg. Ak. *qūqa*, Kad. *qūnqa* 'knee'; Tsez. *qalqu* 'tubular bone'; PAT **q^waq^wa* 'pelvic bones' > Abkh. *a-q^waq^wa*, Abaz. *q^waq^wa*).

2.6. PIE **konə-mo-* 'tibial bone, shin' (Gk. *κνήμη* 'tibial bone, shin'; OIr. *cnāim* 'bone, leg'; OHGerm. *hamma* (< **han-ma-*) 'hip; knee hollow, cavity', [WP: I, 460; Frisk, 883]): PNC **kwVnV* 'bone of the leg' (PA **k^wini* > Lezg. *kunuk* 'ankle', Rut. *kuni*, Tsakh. *kunu* 'knucklebone', Kryz. *k^wani* 'hip'; PAK **kánə* > Ad., Kab. *čan* 'knucklebone').

2.7. PIE **g^het-* 'gut, intestine' (Lat. *botulus* 'intestine'; Goth. *qiþus* 'stomach, belly, maw, womb', OEng. *cwið* and others [WP: I, 671; Walde: 70]): PEC **qqwata* (*~ē-*) 'intestine, stomach' (Lak *qata* 'large intestine' (of small horned livestock)', Av. *q^watá* 'large intestine'; Kar. *q^wata* 'stomach').

2.8. PIE **g^henu-* (OInd. *hanu*; Lat. *gena* 'cheek' *dentes genuīnī* 'back teeth'; OIr. *gin*, *giun* 'mouth', Welsh *gen* 'cheek, chin'; Goth. *kinnus* 'cheek', OHGerm. *kinni* 'chin' and others [WP: I, 587]): PEC *a*č(č)anV* 'cheek' (PTs [with reduplication] **čečenV/čičīnV* 'chin' > Tsez. *čičīn*, Inkh. *čečen*, Bezht. *çičina* and others; PN **čān-ik* [-ik-: a diminishing suffix] 'chin' > Ing. *čang*, Chech. *čenig* Btsb. *čanik*).

2.9. PIE **tuak-* 'skin' (OInd. *tvac-* 'skin, hide'; Gk. *σάκος* 'shield of skin, leather' [WP: I, 747; Frisk: II, 672; Mayrhofer: 537]; related here as well, apparently, is Hitt.

11. If in Hattic a metathesis of the laryngeal (*hulana-* < **hulāna-*) is presupposed, as is usually done in order to explain the Indo-European long sonant in a given root (**u₂elānā* < **u₂l₁nā* < **u₂l₁hnā*), then the coincidence of the PIE and PEC forms will be still more exact.

tuekka- ‘body’): PEC **çčākwV* (~ -*çç*-) ‘hide’ (Av. *çokó*, PA **çikwV* > Akhv. *çoko* ‘skin’, Tind. *çoka* ‘goat- hide’, And. *çuku* ‘id.’; PN **çōka* > Ing. *çoka* ‘hide (wolf’s, dog’s)’, Chech. *çōka* ‘hide’).

2.10. PIE **pērs-nā* ‘part of the leg’ (OInd. *pārṣṇi-*, Avest. *pāšna-* ‘heel; Gk. *πτέγων* ‘heel; ham, gammon’; Lat. *perna* ‘back part of the hip; ham, gammon’; Goth. *fairzna*, OHGerm. *farsana* ‘heel’; see WP: II, 50; related here also is Hitt. *paršna-* ‘lower part of the leg’ [Friedrich: II, 163]): PEC **pwārccV* ‘paw; ham, gammon’ (PL **pāc* ‘paw’ > Lezg. *pāc*, Tab. *bac* and others; Av. *purči* ‘ham, gammon (of animals)’; Cham. *becw* knee; here as well probably belongs PTs **bisV* ‘fist’ > Tsez. *besi*, Hunz. *biza* and others).

A Nostratic etymology for the PIE form (MSSNJa, 342) appears unhelpful (the author himself introduces it with a question mark), and in light of the Caucasian data it seems advisable to reject it.

2.11. PIE **penk^we* ‘five’ (OInd. *pañca*; Arm. *hing*; Gk. *πέντε*; Tokh. B *piś*; Alb. *pesë*; Lat. *quinque*; OIr. *cōic*; Goth. *fimf*; Lith. *penki*; Slav. **petь* [WP: II, 55]): PEC **χwin^wkwV* ‘fist’ (Arch. *χik*; Darg. **χun^wk* > Ak. *χun^wk*, Kharb. *χun^wk* and others; PA **hun^wkA*¹² > God. *hun^wka*, Cham. *hūčā*, Bagv. *hun^wka*).

For PIE an alternative reconstruction **k^wenk^we* is not excluded (if the Italo-Celtic form is assumed to be archaic and if an early dissimilation *k^wenk^we* > **penk^we* in the other PIE dialects is assumed; on the analogic reconstruction of **k^werk^wo-* ‘oak’ see below). The original meaning ‘five fingers, fist’ can be traced in its derivatives (cf. Germ. **fing(w)raz* ‘finger’ < **penk^w-ró-s*, as well as PIE **pn^wk^w-sti-* ‘fist’ > OHGerm. *fūst*, OEng. *fȳst*, OSl. *pęstv*, Lith. *kūmstė* [WP: II, 84; Fraenkel, 309-310]). Acceptance of the reconstruction **k^wenk^we* and an initial meaning of ‘five fingers, fist’ renders the Indo-European-Caucasian parallel quite hopeful (the author thanks Vjach. Vs. Ivanov for having indicated the possibility of this comparison).

2.12. PIE **bhāghu-* ‘a part of the arm’ (OInd. *bāhú-* ‘arm, armpit; foreleg (of an animal)’, Avest. *bāzu-* ‘hand, arm’; Gk. *πῆχυς* ‘elbow, armpit’; OIc. *bōgr* ‘arm, shoulder’; Toch. A *pokem* ‘arm’ [WP: II, 130]: PNC **pūggV* ‘side, part of the body from the armpit to the hip’ [PL **pēā* ‘side’ > Rut., Kryz. *beg* ‘side’, Rut. *bey-da* ‘near’] < ‘at the side’ and others; Khin. *bu^wru-* ‘side’; Bezht. *be^wjejo* ‘part of the body from the armpit to the hip’; PAA Proto-Abkhaz-Adygh **ba^wV* ‘waist, loins’ > Abkh. *a-bka*, Abaz. *bka*, Ad., Kab. *b^wə*).

2.13. PIE **saim-* ‘thick liquid’ (Gk. *αἷμα* ‘blood’, OHGerm. *seim* ‘treacle’; see Frisk: I, 39; the remaining Indo-European parallels, collected in WP: II, 465 under the root **sē(i)-* ‘to drip, dribble, drop; humid’, are entirely unreliable): PNC **c^wājmi* ‘bile, gall’ (PL **sām* > Arch. *šam* ‘bile; anger, ire’; Tab. *seb* ‘bile’; Lezg. *seb* ‘anger, ire’; Darg. **θumi* > Ak. *himi*, Kub. *tume*, Tsud. *simi* ‘bile; anger, ire’; Lak *ši* ‘bile; anger, ire’; PA **šimi* ‘bile’ > Akhv., Tind. *šimi*, And. *šim* and others; Av. *čīn* ‘bile; anger, ire’; PTs **šimā* ‘bile’ > Tsez. *semi*, Georg. *simi* and others, PN **stim* ‘bile’ > Chech. *stim*, Ing. *sim*, Btsb. *sem*. In PWC the reflex of this root **s^wə* appears only in the formation **g^wə-s^wə* ‘anger, ire, spite’ (where **g^wə* is ‘heart’); cf. Abaz. *g^wəž^w* ‘secret, repressed spite’, Ub. *g^wəž^w* ‘spite, vengeance’, Ad. (*g^wəña*)-*g^wəž*, Kab. *g^wəž(-kaž)* ‘secret, repressed spite’.

12. The symbol *A* in Proto-Andi reconstructions signifies an alternative possibility of the reconstruction of PA **a* or **o* (these vowels differ from each other only in the Andi language, whereas in the remaining languages they fall together into a common *a*; the vowel *o* in the remaining Andi languages has a secondary origin, the result of a transferring of labialization from the neighboring consonant).

2.14. PIE **stom-en-* 'mouth' (Avest. *staman-* dog mouth, Afg. *stūnay* (< **stamna-* 'larynx'; Gk. *στόμα* 'mouth', Welsh *safn* 'mandible, jaw', OBret. *istomid* 'palate' and others [WP: II, 648; Dybo 1974, 100]): PEC **ǵwēm V* 'mouth, chin' (Ud. *žomo(χ)* 'mouth, lips, mouth [of animals]; Lak *zuma* 'mouth, lips; edge, end'; PA **ǵ^wina* / **ǵ^wima* 'chin' > Kar. *žomo*, Btsb. *žuna*, Akhv. *žonoḷi*, Tind. *žinaḷu*).

2.15. PIE **s/p/elĝn(en)-* 'spleen' (OInd. *plihán-*, Avest. *spərəzan-*; Arm. *p'aicatn*; Gk. *σπλήν*; Lat. *lien*; OIr. *selg*; OS. *slēzena*; Lith. *blužnis* [WP: II, 680]): PNC **ǵwile/r/ǵw V* 'spleen' (PL **č^wilerč^w* > Tab. *želerž*, Ag. *ž^welez*, Lezg. *čüleż*, Rut. *ziliz* and others.; Darg. Chir. *zilaz* 'spleen', Kharb. *ur-clerc* kidney; PWC **ǵ^wanVz^wV* (~ *ǵ^w*) 'spleen; abomasum, rennet bag' > Ad. *žanaž* 'abomasum, rennet bag', PAT **ǵ^wanəza* (~ *ǵ^w*) 'spleen' > Abkh. *a-vanóža*, Abaz. *zanəza*; despite Shagirov 1977, 277, articulating or dividing the PAT form into **ǵ^wa* and *-nəza* is inadmissible).

As in the Indo-European, so also in the North Caucasian languages there are available several non-regular reconstructions of the root which do not, however, hinder a comparison of the PIE and PNC forms.

2.16. PIE **kēr-* 'hair (single strand)' (Latv. *cera*, *cēre* 'hairs on the head, shaggy hairs; Lat. [with irregular transformations] *cirrus* 'curly hairs; OHGerm. *hār*, OEng. *hær* 'hair(s); see Vries: 210; WP: I, 413, 427, where the Germanic material belongs to another root): PEC **kīr(w) V* 'hair [single strand]' (Darg. Chir. *kur* 'horse's mane; PTs. **kera* 'hair [single strand]' > Hunz. *kera*, Bezht. *keja*, Tl. *kera* and others; Av. *kar* 'hair [strand]'; PA **kArV* 'hair [single strand]' (Akhv. *kari*, Tind. *kara* and others; Czech. *kur* 'tuft, crest, forelock').

2.17. PIE **orso-* 'back, hindquarter, buttocks' (Gk. *ὄρρος*; OHGerm *ars*, OEng. *ears* and others; Ir. *err* 'tail'; Arm. *or*; Hitt. *arra-š* [WP: I, 138; Friedrich: I, 28]): PEC **ǵarəčw V* 'bottom, anus' (Av. *roč*, PA **riš^wi* > Avkh. *roši*, And. *rušu*, Tind. *roši* and others 'anus'; PTs. **rəš* 'foundation' (< 'bottom'); PL **ǵaš*-bottom' (Tab. *as-iq*, *as-ik* 'below', *as-ina* 'down, downward', Ag. *ajs* 'bottom', Lezg. *as-kan* 'lower [adj.]' and others; cf. as well Hurr. *tawš* (< **rawš-*) 'bottom, ground').

3. NAMES OF PLANTS

3.1. PIE **(H)auĝ-* 'oats' (Lith. *avižà*, Latv. *àuzas*, OPrus. *wyse* 'oats'; Slav. **ovbsv*; Lat. *avēna* 'fodder oats' [WP: I, 24]: PEC **HVbVgV/*HVgVbV* 'a kind of cereal' (Av. *ogób*, gen. *abg-il* 'rye'; PA **hAgib* 'rye' > Akhv. *hagib*, Tind. *hagib*; PWC **bag(')* *ə-na* 'oats' > Shaps. *bağən(a)*, Ub. *bağəna*).

The above West Caucasian forms, despite Shagirov (Šagirov 1977: I, 72), are to be distanced from PAK **bagəna* 'a dish made from flour and sour cream' < Osset. *bägāny* 'beer' [Abaev 1958, 245].

3.2. PIE **(H)āg-* 'berry, fruit' (Lith. *úoga* 'berry', Latv. *uôga* 'berry, 'sweet cherries'; Slav. **aga*, **ag-oda* 'berry'; Tokh. B *oko* 'fruit'; Germ. **ak-ran-* 'fruit'; Ir. *āirnē* (< **agrīnīa*) 'sloe, blackthorn' and others [WP: I, 173; Vasmer: IV, 545]): PEC **ǵeq V* 'vineyard, fruit (juicy, edible)' (Darg. Chir. *aq* 'fruits [juicy, edible]'; PTsKh **ǵoχ* 'vineyard' > Inkh. *oh*, Khwar. *oh*; PA **ǵoqi* > Akhv. *aqi*, Tind. *aχi* 'vineyard', And. *oχi* 'sweet cherries').

3.3. PIE **kēko-* 'fodder grass' (OInd. *ḥāka-* 'edible grass, vegetables; Lith. *šiėas* 'freshly mowed grass, green feed, forage'; OIc. *hā* (**hēhōn-*) 'aftermath', Swed. dial. *hå, håv* [WP: I, 381; Vries: 199, Fraenkel: 970-971]); PNC **čwēKV* 'chaff' (Lezg. *ček^w* 'chaff'; Darg. Ak., Tsud. *čuk* 'straw'; PWC **č^wVkV* > PAK **čaká* > Ad. *šāča* 'weed', Kab. *šāča* 'chaff'; ? Ub. *čāḱā* 'fruit stone').

3.4. PIE **kermus-* (/ **k̑ermus-*) 'name of a plant' (Slav. **čermuxa*, **čermuxa* 'bird-cherry'; Latv. *cermauksis*, Lith. *šermušklė* 'ashberry, rowan'. It is not clear how the common Indo-European name for wild onion or garlic relates to this Balto-Slavic formation: Gk. *κρόμμυον*, *κρόμμυον* 'a kind of onion', Mid-Ir. *crim* 'garlic', OEng. *hramsan* 'forest garlic', Slav. **čermvša* 'wild-growing onion', Lith. *kermušė* 'wild garlic'; see Berneker 1908, 145; Vasmer: IV, 339; WP: I, 426); PNC **kkārmušV* / **kkārmužV* / **kkumārsV* 'quince or some similar fruit-bearing plant' (PL **kurmāš*/**kumārs* 'quince' > Tab. *kumiš*, Ag. Burshch. *kuršem*; a variant, **kuržām*, is reflected in Tab. Djub. *kučim*, Ag. *kuržam*; Darg. **kimirθi* 'quince' > Ak. *gimirhi*, Kait. *čimisi* and others; Lak *ḱurmuz* 'mirabel [fruit]'; the Lak form, probably, served as the source of Av. *germez*, Arch. *gerbec*); PTsKh **kušu-Hi* 'peach' > Tsez. *kušuhi*, Gin. *kušohi*; PN **kāmVsl-z* 'vinyard > Czech. *kems*, Ing. *koms*, Btsb. *kaniz*; PWC > Abkh. /with metathesis / *marg^wáz-*, Bz. *a-marg^wáz-ph^wa* 'a sort of plum' (*ph^wa* 'plum'), *a-marg^wáz-ṭama* 'a sort of peach' (*ṭama* 'peach')).

The word does not yield to further etymologization either in North Caucasian or in Indo-European (a comparison of the PIE form with Kartvelian **qar-* 'to give off a stench' and Semitic-Hamitic **kr-* 'to smell' proposed by V. M. Illich-Svitych [MSSN]a: 354] must be rejected in that it is based on an arbitrary segmentation of the PIE base). We note the presence of that very root in Georg. *ḱomši* 'quince' (apparently from a North Caucasian source) from where, in its turn, Osset. *ḱomsi* 'quince' derives [Abaev 1958, 636]. It is quite probable that Gk. *κέρασος* (< **kermiso-*) 'cherry' has a North Caucasian (Hurrian?) source from which in the final analysis the European names for cherries and bird-cherries come (Frisk, 828; Vasmer: IV, 343, with references).

3.5. PIE **gholg(h)-* (*~-a-*) 'branch, stick' (Arm. *jaḷk* 'branch, twig'; Goth. *galga* 'stake, cross; OIc. *galgi* 'gallows, *gelgia* 'branch, stick' and other Germ. words; Lith. *žalgà, žalgas* 'long, thin pole; [WP: I, 540]); PEC **kalVḱV* (*~ḱḱ*) 'branch, stick' (Darg. **kalka* > Ak. *galga*, Kajt. *kalka* 'tree', Chir. *kālčē* 'branch'; Av. *gerégi* 'block (executioner's)' [from Av., borrowed by Arch. *geregi* 'stump of a cut tree without branches']; Bezht. *gaga-ṭo* 'rolling-pin').

As in PIE, so also in PEC as well there are non-reduplicated forms: for PIE cf. OInd. *halá-* 'plow', Arm. *joḷ* 'stake, long branch'; Lith. *žuolis* 'piece of wood' (**ghōl-*; for PEC cf. Tsez. *gilu* 'pole', Lak *čala* 'bayonet', PN **gāl(a)* > Czech. *gala* 'a kind of skittles (sport), chock (sport)', Btsb. *gal* 'birch (tree)' (**kālV~*ḱkālV*).

3.6. PIE **gherd-* 'pear' (Gk. *ἄχερδος, ἄχοράς* 'pear (wild)'; Alb. *darðë* 'pear' [Frisk: I, 199]); PNC **qūlre* 'pear' (PL **χeIra* > Arch. *χIer-t*, Rut. *χIir*, Ud. *ar* and others; Darg. Ak., Chir. and others *qalr*; Lak *quIr-t* 'pear'; PN **qōr* 'pear, apple' > Czech., Ing. *qor* 'pear', Btsb. **q^wə(žá)* > Ad. *qwəža*, Kab. *qwəž*).

The Archi and Lak forms have the suffix *-t*; (in final position < **-d*), characteristic also for a number of names of leaf-bearing trees (cf. PEC **qērdi* 'linden', **ččwelldi* 'willow' and others). Interesting in this connection is the presence of *-d-* in the Indo-European form. The comparison appears to be trustworthy despite the small distribution of the base in the Indo-European area.

3.7. PIE **glōgh-* ‘prickle, spike; thorn’ (Gk. γλῶχες ‘awn, beard of a wheel’, γλωχίς ‘sharp (adj. pl.)’; Slav. **glogb* ‘hawthorn; blackthorn’; see WP: I, 662; Vasmer: I, 414); PEC **qqēlēqqe (-i)* ‘bush (prickly), thorn’ (Lak *xalaxi* ‘thorn, needle’; Av. *qaraq* ‘prickly bushes (collect.)’; Akhv. *qolaqe* ‘bush’; to this, probably, should be connected ‘tree’ (with a change of meaning of ‘bush’ > ‘tree’) PHB **χῶχε* ‘tree’ > Hunz. *χῶχε*, Bezht. **χοχο* and, apparently, Chech. *varba* ‘a kind of poplar’).

3.8. PIE **perk*o-* ‘oak’ (OInd. *parkatī* ‘*ficus religiosa*’, Punjab. *pargāi* ‘*quercus ilex*’; Afg. *pərgáy* (< **parku-ká-*) ‘acorn’; Lat. *quercus* ‘oak’; OHGerm. *ferēh-eih* ‘oak’, *forha* ‘pine’ and others; see Dybo 1974, 95; Mayrhofer, 221-222): PEC **χwīrk(w)V* ‘a kind of tree (oak?)’ (Av. *hirk* ‘acorn’; PL **χ^wi(r)k* > Arch. *χ^wak* ‘forest’, Rut. *χuk* ‘tree’).

If for PIE the original form is **k^werk^wo-* (cf. Lat. *quercus*), then the comparison is acceptable (cf. above on PIE **k^wenk^we* > **penk^we* ‘five’ [2.11]).

3.9. PIE **pel(u)-* ‘name of a leaf-bearing tree’ (OHGerman. *fēl(a)wa* ‘willow’; Osset. *farwe*, *fārwe* ‘alder’; Lat. *pōpulus* (< **plōpol-os*) ‘poplar’; ? Slav. **topolb* [by dissimilation < **popolb*¹³]; Gk. πτελέα, πελέα ‘elm’; therefore despite WP: II, 55, 85; Vasmer: IV, 79: PNC **pwillV* ‘a kind of leaf-bearing tree’ (Darg. **pall* > Tsud. *pall* ‘poplar’, Ak. *pallpall-ag* ‘aspen’; PTsKh **bille*, Tsez. *belli* ‘poplar, ash’, Gin. *bele* ‘poplar’, Inkh. *bulle* ‘aspen’; Chech. *bōl-ak* ‘grove’; PAA **p^wV* > Abkh. *a-t^wa* ‘lime-tree, linden’ Ub. *pa-sa*, *t^wa-sa* ‘beech’ [-s ‘tree’]).

The reduplication in Darg. *pallpallag* is similar to the reduplication in Lat. *pōpulus* and Slav. **topolb* < **popolb*. In view of the clear connection of the PIE and PNC forms the relationship to this of the Proto-Altaic forms **pula* ‘poplar, asp’ is not wholly clear (on the rapprochement of the Indo-European and Altaic roots and the reconstruction of Nostratic **pulV* ‘poplar’ see MSSNYa: 369).

3.10. PIE **pītu-* ‘pine, fir, spruce’ (OInd. *pītu-dāru* ‘a kind of fir’; OGk. πίτυς ‘pine, fir’; taking the original meaning to be ‘resin’ (see below) it is tempting to get from this OInd. *pītu-*, Avest. *pītu-* ‘juice, sap, drink (n.)’: Lat. *pītuīta* ‘mucus, slime, humidity’, although these words may well have a different origin [WP: II, 74-75]): PEC **pinčwV* ‘resin, juice, sap’ (Darg. Ak. *penč* ‘resin’; Lak *pič* ‘melliferous dew perspiration’; Av. *pič* ‘resin’ [> Arch. *pič*]; PA **pinči/*binči* ‘resin’ > And. *pirči*, Akhv. *miči*, Tind. *miči*, Kar. *biči*; Chech. *mutta* ‘juice, sap’).

As with the preceding root, in this case also a Nostratic parallel comes to light (on Nostr. **pečV*, reflected in Ural. **pe(n)ča* ‘pine’ and Turk. **bāš/*böš* ‘pine’, see Terent’ev 1979, 160-162; as for Georg. *pičvi/bičvi*, it is tempting there also to see a parallel; most likely it has a North Caucasian source). It must be emphasized, however, that the Indo-European root (as V. A. Terent’ev notes), can not be a regular reflex of Nostr. **pečV*.

3.11. PIE **peuk-* ‘fir, spruce’ (Gk. πέυκη; OPrus. *peuse*; Lith. *pušis*; OHGerm. *fiuhta*; Mlr. *ochtach* [WP: II, 15; Frisk: II, 523; Fraenkel, 679]): PEC **bilnkkwV* ‘fir, spruce, pine’ (Tab. *muḵ-ruḵ* ‘fir’; Lak Arak. [with reduplication] *milḵikij* ‘pine cone’; PN **baka* > Chech. *baga* ‘pine, Ing. *baga* ‘resinous root of the pine’; for the secondary development of

13. The Slavic forms, as V. A. Dybo believes, appear to be a borrowing from Romance: cf. Ital. *tolpono*, Retho-Rom. *talpon* and others, reflexes of the form **toplōn-* — most likely derived from an unattested **tōpūlus*. It is not clear how OInd. *pippala-* ‘*Ficus religiosa*’ relates to that root.

**biInkḱwV* > **miInkḱwV* > **niInkḱwV*, cf. further Av. *naḱ* 'pine', PTs **neqi* 'pine' > Hunz. *niqe-s*, Bezht. *niqe*, Tsez. *niqe-s*).

The Nostratic etymology of the Indo-European form (Terent'ev 1979, 162) appears doubtful first of all on phonetic grounds (Ural. *-k-* can not correspond to PIE *-k-*), although possibly the similarity of the forms cited above to Ural. **pükä* 'cone' and Tung. **bokoto* 'cone' are not due to chance.

3.12. PIE **bherāgo/-ā-* 'birch' (OInd. *bhūrja-* 'a kind of birch'; Osset. *bärz*; Lat. *farnus*, *fraxinus* 'ash'; OHGerm. *birihha*, OEng. *beorc* 'birch' and other Germ. examples; Lith. *béržas*; Slav. **berza*; Alb. *bredh* 'fir, spruce'; see WP: II, 170): PEC **wēIrqwi* 'birch' (PL **werχI^w* 'birch' > Lezg. *werχ*, Rut. *wuχI*, *huχI*, Tsakh. *woχI*; PA **birq^wV* 'birch' > Akhv. *beqo-li ruša* (*ruša* 'tree'), Kar. *berχ-oḷ roša* (*roša* 'tree'), And. *beχu* and others; cf. as well Av. *bihāro*, *behāro* 'poplar', Bezht. *bivola* 'asp', Lak *buq* 'sloe').

Identifying PIE **bherāg-* 'birch' as from **bhrēg-* 'shine, sparkle' (WP: II, 170) is, most likely, folk etymology. In the Dagestanian languages there are forms that can appear to be relics of an ancient 'Indo-Iranianism', cf. Darg. Ak. *biriz* 'poplar', Tab. *buru3* 'post, pole, pillar'; and also possible is Chech. *bursa* 'a kind of bushes' (PEC **burVŽV* ~ **p-*); in such case it is necessary to consider PEC **wēIrqwi* and **burVŽV* an etymological doublet.

3.13. PIE **bhā(u)go*- 'beech' (Gk. *φηγός* 'oak'; Lat. *fāgus* 'beech'; OHGerman. *buohha*, OEng. *bōc* 'beech' and other Germ. words; Kurd. *būz* 'a kind of elm'; here also belongs, apparently, Slav. **buzъ*, **bъzvъ* 'elder' [WP: II, 128-130]): PNC **pōInqqwe* 'oak, wood' (PWC **pāq^wa* (~*p̄-*, *-χ^w-*) 'wood' > PAK **pχa* > Ad., Kab. *pχa* 'wood'; Abkh. *mħa-* (in the names of articles crafted of wood) — *a-mħā-č_m* 'spoon', *a-mħa-bāsta*, Bz. *a-mħa-p* 'round long-handled wooden scoop for hominy', *a-c_mā-mħa*, Bz. *a-mħa-c_m* 'a round, long-handled wooden scoop for hominy' and others; Ub. *māḡa-* (in analogical constructions) — *māḡā-č^w* 'spoon', *māḡā-č_a* 'spade for stirring hominy, gruel'; PEC **mōlqqwe* 'oak' > PL **maql^wa* > Tab. *maql^w*, Lezg. *mex^w*, Rut. *maχI^w*, Tsakh. *moql* 'fir, spruce', and others; Darg. **miḱ^w* > Ak. *mig*, Kub. *mik^w* and others; PTsKh **muqurḱa* 'acorn' > Khwarsh., Inkh. *muqurḱa*; Av. *miḱ* 'oak tree, acorn'; PA **miḱ^wV* > Kar. *miḱ*, Tind. *miḡi* and others).

3.14. PIE **bhar(e)s-* 'barley' (Lat. *far*, gen. *farris* 'grain in seed; meal, flour', *farīna* 'meal, flour'; Goth. *bariz-eins* 'barley (adj.)', O-Isl. *barr* 'barley' and others; Slav. **boršbno*): PEC **bVrč-inV* 'a kind of cereal, barley' (Av. *purčina* 'barley', PA **bič_{in}* > Tind. *beč_{in}*, God. *beč_{in}* 'barley' and others; Chech. *bažan* 'rye'; Lak *bulč_{in}* 'dry leaves (of leguminous plants)').

-inV in East Caucasian forms becomes suffixal (as is apparent, for example, from Av. pl. *purča-bi*); characteristic are the identical PEC **bVrč-inV* = PIE **bhars-ino-*. From the Indo-European forms examined above it follows that Slav. **bъrvъ* 'millet' is to be separated out [ÈSSJa: III, 134-135; Vasmer: I, 193]; for this reason it is difficult to agree with V. M. Illich-Svitych [Illič-Svityč 1964, 4], following instead F. Hrozný [Hrozný 1913, 38], deriving the Indo-European root from Sem. **br(r)* 'seed, threshed seed'.

3.15. PIE **ned-* 'cane, rush, reed, rush (with a spongy stem)' (OInd. *nada-*, Pers. *nai*, dial. *nad* 'cane [with spongy stem]'; Arm. *net* 'arrow'; Lith. *néndrė* 'rush [with spongy stem]' [WP: II, 329; Fraenkel, 493; Mayrhofer, 127]: PEC **nāHēççwV* 'cane, rush, reed, rush (with spongy stem)' (PL **naç*, Lezg., Tab., Rut., Tsakh. *naç*, Ag. *nec*; Av. *nuç_i/muç_i* 'cane, rush, reed, rush [with spongy stem]'; with metathesis PA **çim²V* > And. *çuma*, *ç^wa*, Tind. *cū*, Cham. *çimi* and other Andi words).

3.16. PIE **rughio-* 'rye' (Olc. *rugr*, OEng. *ryge* and other Germanic words; Lith. *rugys*, Latv. *rudzis*; Slav. **rъžъ* [WP: II, 374]): PEC **rəʎʎV* 'oats, wheat' [PL with reduplication **ʎarʎar* 'oats' > Lezg. *gerg*, Tab. *γaryar*, Ag. *jerg*, Rut. *yaryal*, Tsakh. *gargar*; Av. *roʎ* 'wheat']).

3.17. PIE **lento-* 'tree name; wood' (Olc. *lind*, OHGerman. *linta* 'linden'; Slav. **lqtb* 'young linden, its bark'; Lith. *lentà* 'board, plank'; Alb. *landë*, *lëndë* 'timber forest'; ? Gk. *ἐλάτη* 'fir'; see [WP: II, 437; Vries: 357]): PEC **ʎwinʔV* (*~ē-*, *~ī-*) 'firewood, wood' (PTS **ʎwidV* > Inkh. *lido*, Khwarsh. *lida*, Gin. *rede*, Hunz. *hūdu* and others; PA **ʎundV* > Akhv. *luda*, And. *ludi*, Cham. *ʎunni* and others).

Relating the PIE root **lento-* to 'flexible, lithe; slow' has an obvious folk-etymological character.

3.18. PIE **lino-* 'flax' (Lat. *linum*; Welsh *llin* and others in Celt., Alb. *liri*, Geg. *l'ini*; Goth. *lein*, OHGerm. *līn* and others in Germ.; Gk. *λίνον*; Lith. *linai*, OPrus. *linno*; Slav. **lbnъ* [WP: II, 440-441]): PEC **ʎwinʔi* 'seed [in part, flaxen]' (PL **ʎwin* 'seed, grain') > Lezg. *fin*, Arch. *ʎwin* 'seed', Rut. *xin* 'wheat', Kryz. *xin* 'flax'; Darg. **xwe* 'seed' > Ak. *he*, Kub. *xwe*, Urakh. *hwi* and so on; Lak *hanna* /dial. *lanna*/ 'seeds'; Av. *xon* 'flax'; threshed flax seed; PA **xunʔi* 'seed' > And. *šen*, Tind. *hūʔu*, Kar. *xūji*, Cham. *huni* and others; PN **fū(n)* 'seed' > Btsb. *hu*, Chech. *hu* [gen. *hūna-n*], Ing. *fu* [gen. *funo*]).

In PEC the base hopefully etymologizes as deriving from the verb **ʔV-ʎwVn-* 'to sow' (cf. Cham. *hāh^wna*, Av. *xa-*, Darg. Chir. *-ax^wn-* 'to sow' and others).

3.19. PIE **sasjo-* 'a kind of cereal' (OInd. *sasya-* 'food grains, bread grains, cereals', Avest. *hahya-* 'bread cereals'; Gall. (s)*asia-* 'rye', Welsh *haidd*, Bret. *heiz* 'barley'; the root without suffixal *-i-* is represented in OInd. *sasa-* 'nourishment, nutrition; edible plant'): PEC **sūsV* 'a kind of cereal' (Lak *sus* 'rye'; Chech. *sos* 'a special kind of rye'; with suffixal *-r*, cf. Darg. Kad. *sursur* 'rye'; Av. *susur* 'weed similar to oats, 'wild edible cereal', PA **susur* > Akhv. *šušul* 'oats', And. *susur* 'weed similar to oats', Tind. *susur* 'bran').

The root under discussion must be distinguished from PEC **šulV* (and from reduplicated **šulšulV*) 'rye, oats', which in several languages contaminates with reflexes of **sūsV*. The root **šulV*, apart from the Eastern Slavic languages (from where it no doubt penetrated into Ossetian both in a simple and in a reduplicated form, cf. Osset. *syl* 'rye', *sysyly* 'darnel, cockle') is widespread as well in Turkic, Finno-Ugrian and Kartvelian (Georg. *svili*, *svila* 'rye') — see Abaev 1979, 194-195, 211. It is, however, absent in the Indo-European languages.

3.20. PIE **(H)aiǵ-* 'oak' (OHGerm. *eih*, OEng. *āc* 'oak' and other Germanic words; Gk. *αἰγί-λωψ* 'a kind of oak', *αἰγείοτος* 'Populus nigra'; ? Lat. *aesculus* (**aiǵ-selo-*) 'mountain oak' [WP: I, 10; Walde, 12-13]; not wholly clear is the relationship here of Baltic **aižōl-/anžōl-* 'oak' [WP: I, 10; Toporov 1975, 93, with references]): PNC **ʔāžwV* 'bush; tree' (PA **ʔAžilV* > Akhv. *ažali* 'bush', Kar. *ežela* 'pine'; PTsKh **ʔažwV* > Tsez. *ažwi* 'tree, Gin. *aže* 'tree, bush', Inkh. *ažan* 'bush; PWC > Abkh. Bz. *a-ž* 'bush'). Cf. also Hurrian *azu-γə/azu-ḫḫə* 'fir, spruce'.¹⁴

14. Hurrian is the source of Akk. *ašūḫlu*, *ašūḫu* 'fir, spruce', from which comes Sum. *asolḫ* 'id.' (despite Lieberman 1977, 161, where the opposite direction of borrowing is presumed).

3.21. PIE **(H)edhl-* 'elder; fir, spruce' (Lat. *ebulus* 'elder'; Slav. **edlb* 'fir, spruce'; Lith. *ẽglẽ*, Latv. *egle*, OPrus. *addle* 'fir, spruce', Lith. *ẽgli(u)s* 'elder', Latv. *pa-ẽgleg* 'juniper'; comparison with Gallic *odocos* 'elder' and connecting it to the hypothetical root **edh-* 'sharp' appears highly doubtful; see Walde, 189; Fraenkel, 118; ĚSSYa: VI, 15; Toporov 1975, 56-57): PNC **ʔājzālh V* 'rowan; cornel' (PA **ʔAzAl* 'rowan' > God., Cham. *azal* and others; PTsKh **ʔāsa* 'rowan' > Tsez. *asa*, Akhv. *āsa*; PN **(ʔa)stVw* 'cornel (cornelian cherry tree)' > Chech. *stow*, Ing. *esti*; PWC **ʒa* 'cornel' > Kab. *za*, Abaz. *za-ra*, Abkh. Bz. *a-bgá-žar* and others. Comparison of the Adygh root with PEC **čāčā* 'prickle; thorn; burr' (Trubetzkoy 1930, 84) must, by all appearances, be rejected.

This comparison is acceptable if, in PIE, 'elder' is the original meaning. The PEC root, apparently, is somehow connected with Kartv. **ancil-* 'elder' (although Abkh. *amčar-błā* 'elder' was borrowed from Kartvelian, it was later than this – most likely through Megrelian as an intermediary; the presupposition of an initial kinship of the Abkhaz and Kartvelian forms [Klimov 1969, 290] is, by all appearances, unfounded).

3.22. PIE **(a)masl-* 'apple' (a form, presumably reconstructed on the base of Lat. *mālum*, Gk. *μῆλον*, Hitt. (with metathesis) *šamluw(a)-*; on the Iranian forms see below; see Ivanov 1978, 160-162 for a somewhat different reconstruction — **(s)m(ā)l-*): PNC **ʕālmčā(-a)* 'apple; medlar' (PL **hāmč* 'apple' > Arch. *aInš*, Tab. *vič*, Ag. *hač*, Lezg. *ič*, Kryz. *ječ* and others; Khin. *mič*; Darg. **hinc(i)* > Urakh. *ʕinc* and others 'apple'; Lak *hiwč* 'id.'; PTS **ʔēš*: 'apple' > Gin. *iši*, Inkh. *ēš*, Gunz. *ēš* and others; Av. *ʕēč* 'apple'; PA **ʔimči* 'apple' > Akhv. *eče*, And. *inči*, Cham. *miči* and others; iPN **hamc* 'medlar' > Chech. *hamc*, Ing. *hamisk* < **hamc-ik* [with dim. suffix]); PWC **bV-čwV* 'medlar' > Abkh. *a-bacw*, Ub. *bracw* [with an unclear *-r-*], Ad. Shaps. *nā-pca*; cf. as well Hurr. *hinz^u/ora* 'apple', whence Arm. *xnʒor* is borrowed).

The history of the Indo-European names for apple is exceptionally confused. An undoubted relationship to the Lat., Gk. and Hitt. forms examined above is seen in OIran. **(a)marna-* 'apple', reconstructed on the basis of a comparison of present-day Iranian forms (Steblin-Kamenskij 1982, 103, with references); it must be taken into account that the reconstruction **(a)mahr-na* < **(a)masl-* is also possible. The Proto-Iranian form **amahl-* (prior to the transition **l > r*) could serve as the source, firstly, of polysyllabic Indo-European forms (**amlo-/ablo-* > OInd. *amra-ḥ* 'mango tree', *amra-m* 'fruit of the mango tree', Slav. **ablo* 'apple', Lith. *obuolys*, OHGerm. *apful*, Ir. *aball* and others; on the possibility of the derivation **bl-* < **ml-* in the present case see Ivanov 1978, 161), and, secondly, of the Turkic forms (Turk. **alma*, **ālima*); the Finno-Ugric forms — Finnish *omena*, Mordovian *umar* — apparently were borrowed from Iranian in a later era.

The reconstructed Indo-European proto-form **amas-l-* (in Hitt. metathesis needs to be presumed: **(a)mas-l-* > **sam-l-*) directly correlates to PNC **ʕālmčā*, with suffixal broadening — **ʕālmčā-IV* (cf. the Hurr. form *hinz^u/ora* < **ʕālmčā-IV*). Pointing to a similar suffixal formation as well is the Kartv. form **wašl-* 'apple', in all likelihood having a North Caucasian source (concerning initial *w-* cf. words of the type Tab. *vič* Lak *hiwč*, where forms such as these are the result of the regular development of **ʕālmčā* > **ʕālwčā* > *ʕwālwčā*). We note that also, apparently, having an East Caucasian source as well is Sum. *haš-hur* 'apple tree, apple'. Recently Vyach. Vs. Ivanov has brought as well into the comparison with the root under discussion Hatt. *ša-wat* 'apple tree', *ha-wit* 'to be similar to an apple' [Ivanov 1983, 134], but the possibility of a direct correlation to PWC **bVčwV* (see above) and to Hatt. *wat/wit* requires further research.

3.23. PIE ***(H)enk-** ‘a kind of cereal’ (Slav. **ęčb-my* ‘barley’; Gk. ὀμπνη, ὀμπη ‘food; feed, provender; grain, seed’ — with the etymology of Charantier [KZ, 40, 464] appearing to us the most likely, see below): PNC ***ʔImqgwV** ‘barley’ (Av. South. *oq* ‘barley’; PHB **ʔōχ* ‘barley’ > Hunz. *oh*, Bezht. *ōχ*, Akhv. *ūqa* ‘a kind of oats’; PWC **qI^wV* ‘barley, millet’ > Ub. *χ^wa* ‘barley’, Ad., Kab. *ħa* ‘barley’, PAT **q^wə-ʒ* ‘millet [a construction with the root **ʒə* ‘grain, seed’] > Abkh. Bz. *á-χ^wʒ*, Abaz. *q^wʒə*).

The presently commonly accepted derivation of Slav. **ęčmy* ‘barley’, **ęčb-nb* ‘barley (attr.), barley (meal)’ from PIE **ank-* ‘bend, bow’ (‘because the ripe ears of barley bend over’)[Berneker: I, 286; Vasmer: IV, 571; ÈSSJa: VI, 63-64] has a distinct folk-etymological character (in this instance for some reason the impossibility of the phonetic development **ank-* > Slav. **ęč-* is forgotten; the expected form would be **qčb-my*). Together with this the derivation of Gk. ὀμπνη from PIE **Hop-* ‘work; riches, wealth’ and the direct comparison with forms of the type OInd. *apnas-* (see, for example, WP: I, 175; Frisk: II, 390-391) also appears to be unsuccessful (the nasal in the medial remains unexplained). In the face of all this a comparison of the Slavic and the Greek forms seems unreproachable as to form and semantics as well.

4. NAMES OF IMPLEMENTS AND TOOLS, AND ARTICLES OF MANUFACTURE AND EVERYDAY USE

4.1. PIE ***ag*(e)sī** ‘axe’ (Goth. *aqizi*, OEng. *acus*; Gk. ἄξινη; Lat. *ascia* [WP: I, 39]): PWC ***ǵ^waš^wV** ‘axe’ (Abkh. *a-jg^wš^m* ‘axe with a small “nose” or protuberance’, Abaz. *g^waš^w* ‘hatchet’; Ub. *ǵaš^wa* ‘axe’).¹⁵

PAK **wašá* ‘(wood-) chopper’ (Ad. *wašə*, Kab. *waš*) has to be considered a comparatively late Iranianism (cf. Osset. *wäs*, OInd. *vāci*) and set apart from the other West Caucasian forms (cf. Shagirov 1977: II, 94).

4.2. PIE ***(H)anētā** ‘door jamb’ (Lat. *antae* ‘door jamb’, ‘latera ostiorum’; OIc. *ond* ‘ante-room’; OInd. *ātā*, *ātāh* ‘door frame’, Avest. *a^oθyā*: (acc. pl.) ‘door jambs’; Arm. *dr-and* ‘id.’; see WP: I, 59; Mayrhofer, 72; Walde, 34; Vries, 289): PEC ***ʔōnççV (~ʔ)** ‘door’ (Darg. **ʔunčā* > Chir. *unčā*, Ak. *unza* and others; Lak *nuz* ‘door [one-folded]’; PTS **ʔāc(u)* ‘door’ > Tsez. *ac*, Inkh. *āc*, Hunz. *ācu*; Av. *nučá* ‘door’; PA **hincū* ‘door’ > Akhv. *inčū*, Tind. *hinčū*, And. *hinčū* and others).

4.3. PIE ***(H)edhro-** ‘fence’ (Germ. **eđra-* > OEng. *eodor* ‘fence’, OHGerman. *etar*, OIc. *jōðurr* ‘upper horizontal rail of a fence’; Slav. **odr^b* > OSlav. *odr^b* ‘flooring, bed’, Rus. *odr* ‘couch, bed, flooring’ *odrina* ‘mow (n.), cattle shed, sheep shed’ and others. Less promising with regard to this isogloss is Gk. ὄστρομον ‘stall, cattle shed, sheepscot’ for phonetic reasons. See WP: I, 121; Vasmer: III, 123-124, where other [doubtful] etymologies of the Slav. form are considered): PEC ***HazzārV** ‘enclosure, pen, fold’ (PL **ʔaçar* > Tab. *ačur*, Rut. *addar* ‘enclosure, pen, fold’; PN **ʒʔār* ‘fence, wattle fence’ > Chech., Ing. *zʔar*).

15. It is not wholly clear how PWC **ǵ^waš^wV* correlates with PEC **kāčwV* ‘hammer; stick’ (PL **kaš* > Ag. *kaš* ‘sledge-hammer’, Lezg. *kaš* ‘hammer’, Kryz. *kaš* ‘shepherd’s staff’ and others; Hunz. *kuča* ‘(small) hammer’; Chech. *kāčal* ‘mill hammer’).

4.4. PIE **pert(h)-* ‘stick’ (Arm. *ort* ‘vine, tendril’; Gk. *πτόρθος* ‘sprout, shoot, sprout just out of the ground’; Lat. *pertica* ‘pole, perch’ [WP: II, 49] (otherwise see Walde, 63); more doubtful with regard to this isogloss is OInd. *ka-pṛth-* ‘penis’ and Slav. **pṛtъ*, although a more convincing etymology for the latter has not been proposed [Vasmer: III, 390]): PEC **bVrVfV (~*w-)* ‘stick’ (Av. *búrdi* ‘small siskin; baluster’; PA **birVda* > Kar. *berda* ‘pole, Bagv. *berda* ‘stick’ and others; Bezht. *bujda* ‘stick, baton for a marriage procession’; Darg Ak. *barda*, Chir. *baraṭa* ‘axe’ and others).

4.5. PIE **nsi-* ‘sword’ (OInd. *así-* ‘sword, broadsword’, Avest. *aṇhū-*; Lat. *ensis* ‘sword’ [WP: I, 324]): PNC **nič* ‘sickle, knife’ (PTsKh **nišu* ‘sickle’ > Tsez., Gin. *neš:u*, Inkh. *nišu*; PA **nič* ‘sickle’ > And. *nič*, Akhv., Tind. *nič* and others; with metathesis PL **čin* ‘sickle’ > Kryz., Bud., Tsakh. *čin*; PWC > Ub. *caná* ‘sabre’)¹⁶.

4.6. PIE **kom- (~-a-)* ‘cover, jacket, shirt’ (OInd. *ṣāmula-*, *ṣāmulyá-* ‘woolen shirt’; Lat. [Late] *camisia* ‘shirt’; Germ. **hama-* > OIc. *hamr* ‘cover, jacket, skin, hide’, **hamiþja-* > OHGerm. *hemidi* ‘shirt’ and others, [Walde, 88; Vries, 208; WP: I, 386])¹⁷: PNC **χamV* ‘skin, hide; cloth, fabric’ (PL **χam* > Tab. *χam* ‘skin, hide’, Ag. *χam* ‘skin’, Lezg. *χam* ‘skin, hide, crust, bark’; Av. *χam* ‘cloth, fabric, linen, sackcloth’; PA **χAni* > Kar. *χame*, Akhv. *χani* ‘cloth, fabric’; PWC **tqamə* ‘hide, fur’ > Ub. *tχamə* ‘hide, fur’, Abkh. *a-χamə*, Abaz. *qamə* ‘fur coat’).

We note also Kartv. **qaml-* ‘hide (of sheep, goat)’ (see Klimov 1963, 263); note there also a comparison with Abkhaz.

4.7. PIE **kūl(o)-* ‘spear, point, spike’ (OInd. *ṣūla-*, *ṣūlā* ‘spear, lance, ‘sharp stake’; Arm. *slak* < **sul-ak*) ‘spear, dagger’; OIr. *cuil*, Lat. *culex* ‘flea, mosquito’ [< ‘pricking?’] [WP: I, 465]; the remaining forms that were proposed, collected under the general hypothetical root **kū-* ‘point’, are hardly relevant here): PEC **čwlī* ‘point, arrow’ (Lak *čila* ‘knife’, Av. *čor* ‘arrow, ramrod’, Btsb. *čur* ‘arrow’, PTS **čulu* ‘arrow’ > Bezht. *čulu* and others).

4.8. PIE **klāu-/ *klēu-* ‘key, hook for a lock’ (Gk. *κλήις* ‘key’, Lat. *clāvis*, Slav. **ključь* and multitudinous other forms [WP: I, 492-494]): PNC **kufe* ‘key, hook, lock’ (Lak *ḱula* ‘key’, Av. *ḱul* ‘key’, Kar. *ḱula(-laḱa)* ‘lock’ and others; PWC (with metathesis) > Abkh. *a-lāḱ^w* ‘lock (of a firearm, lock)’ . The West Caucasian antiquity of this root is attested by Hattic *kaluḥ/qqalu* ‘bolt, bar’ (Ivanov 1983, 136).

or this root it is necessary to point out as well Semito-Hamitic parallels (**kl?* ‘to lock’ [IlličSvityč 1964, 6]), and also Kartvelian (Laz. *ḱila*, *ḱola*, Megr. *ḱila*, *ḱala*, Svan *ḱal* ‘key’, as well as Megr. *ḱalua*, Svan *ḱl-* ‘to lock’ [IlličSvityč 1964, 6; Klimov 1981, 169]). The direction of borrowing in this particular case is, at the present time, difficult to determine.

4.9. PIE **k^wer-* ‘vessel’ (OInd. *carú-* ‘cauldron’, ‘earthenware pot’; OIr. *coire*, Welsh *pair* (< **k^weriō-*) ‘cauldron’; OIc. *hverr*, OEng. *hwer* ‘cauldron’; ? ORuss. *čara* ‘cup, goblet’ — although for the latter an origin through borrowing is not excluded as well [Vasmer: IV, 316; Mayrhofer, 377; Vries, 272]): PEC **kwārV* ‘clay vessel’ (Bezht. *ķera*

16. A possible Hurrian parallel for this root is reflected, most likely, in Hitt. (< Hurr.?) *zina-* ‘scissors’.

17. Of little likelihood is the proposal of I. Teubner (Teubner 1977) that Germ. **hamiþja-* is borrowed from North Iranian **kambicuk-*, **kambicik-* ‘clothing made of hemp’ (the traditional etymology of the Germanic word in this connection is not even mentioned).

'clay vessel', Darg. **k^warV* 'large clay vessel'; Lak Barts. *k^wara* 'vessel for flour; oven for bread'.

West Caucasian parallels to this root are absent, but cf. Hatt. *karam* 'wine vessel' (see Ivanov 1983, 136; borrowing of the Hatt. word from Sem. **krm* 'wine' appears to us doubtful).

4.10. PIE **g^herən-/*g^hrāun-* 'millstone' (Goth. *qairnus*, O-Isl. *kvern*; Lith. *girños* 'hand-mill; Slav. **žrny* 'millstone'; OInd. *grāvan-* 'stone for pressing Soma [mythical intoxicating drink'; Arm. *erkan* 'millstone'; OIr. *braó, bró* 'millstone' and other Celt. words [WP: I, 685]): PEC **χIwērV* **mill, millstone** (PN **har, *harjV* > Chech. *her, hajra*, Ing. *hajra*, Btsb. *hajr* 'mill'; PA **χ^wArV-* > Bagv. *χ^war-*, Kar. *χ^war-* and others; Lak *hara(-qalu)*; Khin. (with metathesis) *zoχ* (< **roχ*) 'millstone'; PL **reχI^wa* > Lezg. *reχ^w*, Tab. *raχI, raχI-in*, Ag. *raχ*, Rut. *ruχI*, Tsakh. *joχIa* 'mill', Arch. *deχI^w* 'millstone').

The PEC base is verbal (cf. PL **reχI^wa* 'to grind, mill', Av. *χe-*, Tind. *χ^w-an-*, Chech., Ing. *aha* 'to grind, mill'); there are West Caucasian parallels as well (PAK **ha-ga* 'to grind, mill') and others).

Derivation of the PIE form from Sem. **grn* (Illich-Svitych 1964, 5) should be rejected, in that the Semitic root signifies not 'to hammer, to spread' but 'threshing floor, place for threshing'. The Kartvelian forms most probably have an Indo-European provenance (Laz *kurni*, Georg. Adzh. *kurne* 'milling chute') (Klimov 1981, 169).

4.11. PIE **k^seuł-* 'beam, post, piece of wood' (Gk. *ξύλον* 'wood, beam'; Lith. *šùlas* 'post, jamb, doorpost', OPrus. *sulis* 'pole, upright'; Slav. **šulo* 'post, wood block, (short) log, log'; OHGerm. *sūl* post, Goth. *sauls* 'column, post' [Frisk: II, 338-339; WP: II, 503; Vasmer: IV, 484-485]): e PEC **čiwlu* 'beam' (PL **čul* > Tab. *čul* 'beam', Ag. *čil* 'beam, thin log', Lezg. *čul* 'beam' and others; Darg. *čala* 'pole'; 'knitting needle, fork'; Lak *čula* 'beam, squared beam or timber, log; Gunz. *čelu* 'diametrical or transversal crossbeam'; Av. *čalu* 'log, beam'; PN **čar-ik* 'transversal ceiling crossbeam' > Ing. *čarga*, Chech. *čerg*).

4.12. PIE **sel-* 'room, dwelling' (OHGerm. *sal* 'hall, dwelling' and other Germ. words; Slav. **selo*; see Walde, 582; WP: II, 502-503; Vasmer: III, 596. It is very probable that Hitt. *šeli-* 'shed, barn' belongs to this same root; see Friedrich: II, 190, cf. especially Germ. words of the type OIc. *sel* (**salja-*) 'shepherd's cabin, hut, shack'): PEC **čalle* 'enclosure, pen, sheepfold, fence' (PL **čal* > Rut. *ačal* 'enclosure, pen, sheepfold', Ud. *čal* 'fence [to keep in]', and others; Av. *čali* fence [to keep out], wattle fence; fence [wooden]; Darg. Ak. *čalli* 'fence [wooden]'; Tind. *čali* 'enclosure, pen, sheepfold' and others).

4.13. PIE **H₂erk-* 'wheel' (Hitt. *hurki-*, Tokh. A *wärkänt-* 'wheel'; see Ivanov 1979, 146-147; the other Indo-European parallels [Ivanov 1975, 404], are not completely hopeful): PNC **h₂alkwV* (~ *-i-*, *-o-*) 'vehicle' (Darg. *urkura* 'a kind of bullock cart', Av. *hokó* 'a kind of bullock cart, cart [four-wheeled]'; And. *ink^wa* 'kind of bullock cart'; PAK **k^wa* > Ad. *k^wa*, Kab. *g^wa* 'bullock cart, cart [four-wheeled]; on the possible original meaning of 'wheel' inherent in the Adygh form, see Yakovlev 1948, 281).

A. K. Shagirov (Šagirov 1977: I, 113) matches the Caucasian material to PIE **uo^hgho-* 'vehicle, carriage [for loads], vehicle, carriage', which is inadmissible according to phonetic considerations. The root in question, apparently, was represented in Hurro-Urartian, cf. Hitt. *hulukanni-* 'light carriage', Akk. *huluganu* (*huluganu*), a borrowing from a Hurrian source (judging by the shape of the base in *-nV*, typical for Hurrian). The presence of *-l-* in the presumed Hurrian form supports the reconstruction **-l-* in PNC (done according to systematic considerations, namely according to the correspondence

Darg.-r-: Av. -Ø-: And. -n- in the medial position, in combination with a following velar consonant.)

4.14. PIE **g^weru-* 'spit [for roasting], point, spike' (Lat. *veru* 'spit; javelin, lance'; OIr. *biur* 'id.' and other Celtic words; Goth. *qairu* 'stake; needle, sting'; Avest. *grava-* 'stick'; see Feist, 386 and others): PWC **g^wərə* 'needle, knitting needle' (Abkh. *a-g^wər*, Abaz. *g^wərə* 'needle, knitting needle'; PAK **g^wərə-κ* 'pintle' > Ad. *g^wərκ*, Kab. *g^wərəκ*; [Abdokov 1973, 46]. In the first part of the Adygh word one must not single out the component **k^wə* 'aruba [a kind of bullock cart]', despite Shagirov [Šagirov 1977: I, 119]; in the Adygh form in such a case as this one would expect *k^w-*).

5. OTHER WORDS

5.1. PIE **ār(H)o-* 'space' (Lith. *óras*, Latv. *ars* 'space, open place, open area'; OInd. *āre* 'in the distance, far off', *ārād* 'from a distance'; Lat. *ārea* 'free space; threshing floor'; see Walde, 42 and others. Not excluded as a possible connection here is Hitt. *arḫa-* 'courtyard', Alb. *arë* 'field' [Hamp 1958], although in the Albanian form the reason for the shortened reflex of the first vowel is unclear. See also Orël 1984, 319: PEC **?ār(H)V* 'field, plain' (Lak *ar* 'plain'; Tab. *ar* 'marsh'; PN **?ārV* > Chech., Ing. *ārē* 'floor; plain, steppe').

5.2. PIE **(H)aġro-* 'field' (OInd. *ājra-*; Gk. *ἀγρός*; Lat. *ager*; Goth. *akrs* and others [WP: I, 37]): PEC **ǰǰǰǰV* (the same with metathesis **ǰǰǰǰV*) 'meadow, glade, clearing': PL **čura* (~-o-) 'common pasture, meadow' > Tab. *čur* 'pasture', Ag. *čir* 'meadow', Lezg. *čur* 'common pasture, pasture (where cattle graze)'¹⁸, 'meadow, pasture (where cattle rest the night)'¹⁹, Rut. *čir*, Tsakh. *čijai* 'earth'); PA **hAčča* 'meadow, 'grass-plot'; Chech. *irzū* 'rooted out, stubbled earth; seeded, sowed forest clearing).

. M. Illich-Svitych (Illič-Svityč 1964, 4) proposes for the Indo-European word a Semitic origin (Sem. **hḏr* 'enclosed, fenced-in plot, courtyard'), but this has little probability for semantic reasons (PIE **aġro-* does not, as it were, incorporate the idea of 'enclosing'). Comparing the Semitic form with PEC **Ha33ārV* 'enclosure, pen, sheepfold, fence' (see above) appears more likely, with which we in turn compare PIE **edhro-* 'fence'.

5.3. PIE **dholo-* 'valley' (Goth. *dal*, OHGerm. *tal* and other Germ. words; Slav. **dolъ* [WP: I, 864]). The Greek parallel is doubtful — *θόλος* 'cave, round structure, round-shaped paired bath' [Frisk: I, 677]: PEC **33əIHV* 'plain, plateau' (PL **čol* 'low place, depression' > Lezg. *tul*, Rut. *dil*, Kryz. *tul*; Av. *cor* 'plain'; Cham. *cedo* < **čerHo* 'table-land, plateau').

5.4. PIE **mar(o)ġ-* 'boundary, border' (Avest. *marəza-* 'boundary, border, bordering region'; Lat. *margo* 'edge'; OIr. *mruig*, *bruig* 'boundary, border' and other Celt. words; Goth. *marka*, OHGerm. *marcha* 'boundary' and other words [Walde, 369; Feist, 347]; PEC **mörq̣wV* 'stripe, strip, mark' [PL **marχ^w* 'strip of mowed grass' > Arch. *maχ* 'part of a meadow apportioned to one woman for mowing', Lezg. *marχ^w*, Tab. *marχ^wal*, Bud. *merk* 'strip of mowed grass'; Av. *muq* 'line, mark'; PTs **muq* > Inkh. *muq* 'wrinkle';

18. Rus. выпас [RT].

19. Rus. пастбище [RT].

row'; Bezht. *muq* 'stripe, strip'; PA **muqV* > Akhv. *muqu* 'line [of text]', God. *muqi* 'stripe, line' and others; PN **moxV* > Chech. *моха*, Ing. *мух* 'line [of text]'

5.5. PIE **(H)areǵ-/(H)rǵ-* 'silver' (OInd. *rajata-*, Avest. *ərəzata-*, Lat. *argentum*, OIr. *argat*, Arm. *arcat*; with another suffix Gk. ἄργυρος [WP: I, 82]): PNC **?ēIrVco* // **?oIrVc(w)e* 'silver' (PL **?ars-* > Arch. *arsi*, Tab., Ag. *ars*; Darg. *arc*; Lak *arcu*; PTsKh **?os* > Inkh., Khwarsh. *os*; Av. *ʕarac*; PA **?orci* > And. *orsi*, Akhv. *arči*, Tind. *asi* and others; PWC **rVz^wV-n* / **rVś^wV-na* > Abkh. Bz. *a-ražná*, Abaz. *rəzna*; Ub. *daš^wana*. Irregularly PAK **təžānā* > Ad. *təžən*, Kab. *dažana* 'silver' [*təžana* is expected]. To this is related, undoubtedly, Hurr. */ośh₁/o(-ne)* 'silver' with the regular development **-rc-* > *-śh-*; see D'yakonov, Starostin 1988).

The Indo-European name for silver is usually said to derive from the root **Harǵ-* 'light, bright' (cf. OInd. *arjuna-*, Gk. ἄργός, Hitt. *harki-* and others). If this is correct, one must consider the North Caucasian root to be an Indo-Europeanism. However, the fact stands out that the Indo-European forms have the meaning 'silver' only in suffixed form, whereas the majority of the Caucasian forms have no suffixes. For this reason for PIE **(H)areǵ-* 'silver' the possibility of a secondary comparison with the root **Harǵ-* 'light, bright' is not ruled out.

R. Lafon (Lafon 1933), and before him P. Charaya (Čaraja 1912), compared the North Caucasian forms with Kartvelian ones (Kartv. **werc₁χ₁-* 'silver' [Klimov 1963, 83]). To us the Kartvelian form appears to be a relatively late Hurrianism (Hurr. */ośh₁/o-* is assumed to be early Hurri-Urartian [prior to the loss of *-r-*] **orch₁-*, corresponding rather exactly to the Kartvelian form); despite Vych. Vs. Ivanov (Ivanov 1983, 105) the sound-consonance of Hurr. */ośh₁/o-* 'silver' and Lith. *auksas* 'gold' (and other Indo-European forms related to the latter) is, most likely, coincidental.

5.6. PIE **ues(no-)* 'worth, price, to sell' (OInd. *vasna-*; Gk. ὠνοϛ; Arm. *gin*; Lat. *vēnus*; Slav. **věno*; Hitt. *uāš-* 'to purchase', *uešija-* 'worth'. See WP: I, 311; Friedrich: III, 248-253; on the belonging of the Slav. form here see Trubachev 1975); PNC **uVjcV* 'sheep, worth' (PN **?ust-ik-* 'ram' > Chech. *üstak*, Ing. *ustaka*, Btsb. *ujstχ*; PWC **wasa* > Abkh., Abaz. *wasā* 'sheep'; Ad., Kab. *wāsa* 'worth, cost').

A complex case: G. Deeters (Deeters 1957) considers the West Caucasian forms to be borrowings from Indo-Iranian (in fact, for Indo-Iranian one may reconstruct **wasā(-ka)* 'worth, price' on the base of Pers. *behā*, MPers. *vahāk* 'worth' [Horn 1893, 55]). However, the semantic development 'worth' > 'sheep' appears to us of small probability (the reverse is far more natural). Moreover, the antiquity of the meaning 'sheep' in the root under discussion would seem to be supported by Hatt. *(wa)-zar-* 'sheep' (on a comparison of the latter see Ivanov 1983, 142), which, in addition, sheds light on the morphological structure of the formation in question, indicating that **uV-* is historically a prefix. It is not out of the question that Kartvelian **wac₁-* 'ram' also has a North Caucasian source (Klimov 1963, 82). In such a case it follows that the reverse direction of borrowing should be recognized (from North Caucasian to Indo-European).

5.7. PIE **mizdho-* 'payment' (OInd. *mīdhā-*, Avest. *mīžda-*; Gk. μισθός; Goth. *mizdō* and other Germ. words; Slav. **mьzda* [WP: II, 301]): PNC **maśwV* (**~ə-*) 'worth, trade' (PL **maša* > Arch. *mas* 'worth', Tab. Dyub. *mašu qāvqus* 'to purchase [perf.]', *mašu duvus* 'to sell [perf.]', Lezg. *mas* 'worth, cost', *masa gun* 'to sell [imperf.]', *masa qačun* 'to purchase [imperf.]' and others; Darg. Ak. *mas* 'article of trade, good, ware, commodity';

Lak *maša* 'trade'; PWC *š^w*a* 'worth, price', to pay' > Abkh. *a-š_ma-ra*, Abaz. *š^wa-ra* 'to pay', Ub. *š^wa* 'worth, price').

The initial syllable **ma-* in East Caucasian must be a prefix; given that, the secondary loss of **ma-* in West Caucasian is not ruled out (verbal roots beginning with *m-* are absent here). In the Indo-European form one can observe the component **-dho* (< **dhe(H)-* 'to put, to place') and reconstruct an original combination of **mis-* 'payment' + **dhe(H)-* 'put down, place'. The first component **mis-* (or in its hypothetical full stage), **meis-* or **mois-*), coordinates or links up well with PNC **mašwV*, as it seems. How does PIE **moiso-* 'ram, sheep' relate to this?²⁰

5.8. PIE **korkā(-lā)* 'gravel, pebble' (OInd. *çarkarā*, *çarkara-* 'gravel, pebble'; Gk. κρόκη, κροκάλη 'pebbles' [WP: I, 463]. Probably, to this it is necessary to relate Germ. **haruga-* 'pile of stones' [with a secondary meaning of 'altar', 'sacred place'] < **kork(r)ó-*: PNC **kērkēIV*/**kērkēnV* 'pebble', grain, seed, kernel [dim.]; egg' (PL **kākāl* 'pebble, gravel' > Lezg. *k(i)kal*, Tab. *kekel*, Rut. *kīkal*, Tsakh. *kaḱalaj*, Kryz. *kīkāl*; PHB **keke* > Hunz., Bezht. *keke* 'grilled, roasted, broiled grain; Av. *korḱonu* 'grape; berry'; PA **korḱonV* 'egg' > God. *karḱanu*, And. *korḱon* and others; PWC > Ad. *čanča*, Shaps. *kanḱa* 'egg'. Cf. as well Hurr. *kirikirianna* 'bump, lump [on the skin]).

A similar root is present in the Kartvelian languages as well (Kartv. **kaḱal-* 'walnut', in Megr. 'grain, seed, core, kernel, piece' [Klimov 1963, 105]), and a North Caucasian origin is not ruled out for it; Arm. *kaḱal* 'large nut' undoubtedly comes from Kartvelian [Kapantsyan 1952, 36-37]. G. A. Klimov in several works calls attention to the similarity of the Caucasian forms (besides, as well, a comparison of the Kartvelian and West Caucasian forms, but, however, leading to a comparison only of forms in the Lezgian languages alone [Klimov 1963, 105; 1969, 292; 1972, 352; Vinogradova, Klimov 1979, 158]). However, the attempt to derive the Lezgian words from Armenian (in the latter work), apparently, has no base of support. Cf. also Šagirov 1977: II, 133.

In connection with the forms without medial *-r-* attention may be directed as well to PIE **kaghlo-* 'pebble' (Gk. κάχληξ 'stone; rock, pebbles', OHGerm *hagal* 'hail' and others; see WP: I, 338), of which the relationship to the root under discussion is not wholly clear.

5.9. PIE **keuk-* 'heap, pile' (Goth. *hiuh-ma* 'heap; large quantity', *hūhjan* 'pile up, collect', OIc. *haugr* 'hill' and other Germ. words; Slav. **kuča*; Lith. *kaūkas* 'bump [from an injury]', lump', *kaukarà* 'hill'; see WP: I, 371, where many more words with a meaning of 'crooked, bent, to bend, to bow' and so on are listed, words seemingly having no relation to the root under discussion): PEC **q̣q̣wīlq̣q̣a* (~ *-ī*) 'group, large quantity; hill, elevation' (Lak *q̣ulq̣a* 'group' /Lak > Darg. *q̣uq̣al* 'group'/; Hunz.. *q̣oq̣ol* 'crowd'; Av. *q̣oq̣a* 'detachment, detached force, group', PA **q̣wiq̣a* > God. *q̣uq̣o* 'group', Cham. *q̣oq̣īla* 'gather into groups (of people)'; belonging here as well, apparently, are Darg. *q̣alq̣* 'hill' and PN **ḅẓōka(m)* (*ḅẓ-* regularly < **q̣w-*) 'post, pole, pillar, column').

5.10. PIE **ḳiāuero-* 'north, north wind' (Lat. *caurus* 'north wind'; Lith. *šiaurė* 'north', *šiaurys* 'north wind'; Slav. **sěverb* 'north'; OHGerm *skūr* 'Ungewitter' [WP: I, 377; Walde: 108]): PEC **ccōjwīlhV* 'winter, autumn' (PA **cībirV* 'winter' > Akhv. *cībera*, Tind.

20. It is interesting that Darg. *mas* besides the meaning 'article of trade, commodity' also has the meaning 'ram'. It is not ruled out that in fact 'ram' was the original meaning of this root and that we are observing here the very same semantic evolution as in the preceding case.

čibar, Ba. *šibara* and others; PL **cowil* 'autumn' > Tab. *čmul*, Ag. *cul*, Tsakh. *cuwul*, Arch. *soĭ-*, Lezg. *zul*; PTs **šibə(r)* > Tsez. *sebi*, Bezht. *sibora*, Hunz. *sibər* 'autumn'; Btsb. *štabo* 'autumn' and others; the West Caucasian parallel (PWC **bžə* > Ub. *bžə* 'winter', Ad. *bžəha*, Kab. *bžəha* 'autumn') gives rise to doubt not so much due to the loss of the sonants (a regular development) as to the not quite clear correspondence **cc* : **ž*.

5.11. PIE **kēk**- 'manure, dung' (OInd. *čākr-t*, Gk. *κόπρος*, Lith. *šik-ti* 'cacare' [WP: I, 381; Fraenkel, 982]. Here Hitt. *šakkar* [with a variant *zakkar*] 'manure, dung, faeces, excrement' should be seen as related: the morphological parallelism of OInd. *čākr-t*, gen. *čaknāḥi* = Hitt. *šakkar*, gen. *šaknaš* is obvious, and cases of PIE **k* reflected in Hitt. as *š* also are not uncommon, cf. Hier.-Hitt. *ašuwā-* 'horse', Hitt. *šamana-* 'corner-stone, foundation' and others): PNC **čVq̄lV* 'faeces, excrement, mud' (Tab. *čvq̄l-ur* 'excrement, droppings', Rut. *čūq̄l^w* 'mud on the clothing'; PWC **čəq̄^wə* (~ **č-*) 'droppings', Ub. *čəq̄^w* 'cow droppings', Abaz. *-q̄^wəç* 'manure, dung').

5.12. PIE **t^wer-* 'curdled milk, curds' (Avest. *tūiri-* 'milk that has curdled, whey', OInd., Prakrit *tuvara-* 'astringent', Apabhramsha *tūra-* 'cheese'; Gk. *τύρος* 'cheese'; Slav. **tvar-ogv* 'lac coagulatum'; see WP: I, 710, where the words examined are totally arbitrarily related to PIE **tēu-* 'to swell' [Vasmer, v. 4, 31; Frisk: II, 948; Mayrhofer, 516; Turner, 336]): PNC **[?]V-twVr-* 'become rolled up, to turn sour, to rot, putrefy' (PL **[?]it^war-* > Arch. *tar-as* 'to roll up (of milk)', *t^w-as* (< **t^wr-as*) 'to fade, droop, wither', Bud. *atar* 'to ferment, go sour', Lezg. *arut-iz* 'to roll up (of milk)'; Darg. Urakh. *-irt-* 'to become thickened'; Lak (redupl.) *tata-* 'to thicken'; Av. *-et-* (< **-etr-*) 'to become rolled up', *tur-* to rot, putrefy, decompose'; PA **it^(w)it^(w)-* > Kar. *-etit-* 'to sour, turn sour', **t^wir-* 'to rot, putrefy' > Kar. *tor-*, Tind. *tor-d-* and others, arbitrarily **t^wiri* 'brine for cheese'; PN **-āt-* > Chech. *-at-*, Btsb. *l-at-* 'to become rolled up'; PWC **t^wa* 'pus, matter, to become rotten, fermented' > Abkh. *a-t^wá*, Kab. *wa-ta(-ps)* 'pus', Ub. *t^wa-* 'to become rotten, fermented [with a secondary ejective quality]).

5.13. PIE **prk-* 'heat, burning coal' (Lith. *pišk-šnys*, Latv. *pirk-sti*; OIr. *riches* 'coal', Bret. *regez* 'heat, coal' (**prki-stā*); see Fraenkel, 506): PWC **pəɾəyə* > Abkh. *a-pəɾəb*, Abaz. *pəɾəb* 'heat, burning coal'.

The comparison is rather doubtful due to the limited spread of the root both in the Indo-European and in the North Caucasian languages (from the East Slavic languages cf., perhaps, Lak *purķu* 'smoke?').

5.14. PIE **medhu-* 'honey' (OInd. *mádhu-* 'honey; sweet'; Avest. *mađu* 'berry wine'; Toch. B *mit* 'honey'; Gk. *μέθυ* 'wine'; OIr. *mid* 'drink made with honey' and other Celtic words; O-Isl. *mjǫðr*, OHGerm *metu* 'drink made from honey'; Lith. *medūs* 'honey'; Slav. **medb* 'honey' [WP: II, 261]): PEC **hwīmīz̥zu* 'honey' (PL **im̥* > Tab. *jič^w*, Ag. *iĭ^w*, Tsakh. *ut*, Arch. *im̥* and others; Khin. *nüç*; Darg. **wada* > Ak. *war[?]a*, Chir. *waza*, Kub. *wada* and others; Lak *niç*; PTS **nucə* > Tsez. *nuci*, Inkh. *nucu*, Hunz. *nucu*, Bezht. *nuco* and others; Av. *hoçó*; PA **hunçi* > Akhv. *unçi*, Tind. *hunçi*, And. *hunçi* and others; PN **moç* > Btsb. *moç*, Chech., Ing. *moz*).

The PEC form is derived from the root **mīz̥V* 'sweet' (cf. Darg. **muði-* > Ak. *mu[?]i-*, Chir. *mizi-* and others; Lak *naçu-*; PA **miça-* > Akhv. *miça-*, Tind. *miça-*, And. *miça* and others; PN **māçer-* > Btsb. *maçarin*, Chech., Ing. *merza*). In a later era the Indo-Iranian name for honey penetrated the East Caucasian languages in a new form (PEC **māldwV* 'a kind of drink', see above).

In view of the fact that for the Indo-European root a North Caucasian source is absolutely certain (on the correspondence *₃₃ : **dh* see below) – Sem. **mtk* ‘sweet’ (which V. M. Illich-Svitych [Illich-Svitych 1964, 5] considers the source of Indo-European **medhu-*) – it follows that one must either consider it an Indo-Europeanism (cf., in part, such formations as OInd. *madhuka-*, Slav. **medъkъ*), or either in general not submit it to comparison. It should be noted that the East Caucasian root finds direct parallels in the Semitic and Cushitic languages (cf. Sem. **m(j)z*, Arab. *miz-r* ‘a kind of beer’ and others; Cush. *caxo mēz*, Kuara *mīz* ‘drink made with honey’; see Militarev, Starostin 1984).

5.15. PIE **reugh-* ‘sour milk, butter’ (Avest. *raoyna-* ‘butter’, Pers. *rōyan*; OIc. *rjōmi* ‘cream’, OEng. *rēam*, MHGerm. *roum* ‘cream, sour cream; OPrus. *raugus* ‘rennet ferment’, *ructan dadan* ‘sour milk’, Lith. *ráugti* ‘to make sour’, *rúgti* ‘to turn sour’, *ráugas* ‘ferment [n.]’ and others [WP: II, 357-358; Vries, 449]; in the Baltic languages the root underwent a secondary contamination with **reug-* ‘belch’, but these roots must be distinguished one from the other): PNC **reny̯wV* ‘butter; milk’ (PL **jimχ* (~*χ*) [< **rimχ*] > Arch. *inχ* ‘butter’, Kryz., Bud. *juχ* ‘milk’; with a regular metathesis of sonants are Darg. Chir. *nerχ*, Kub. *nēχ* and others ‘butter’, Lak *nah* ‘butter’, Av. *naχ* ‘butter, fat’; Ad., Kab., Ub. *tχ^wə* ‘baked butter’ [Adygh. and Ub. *t-* in this case may go back to PWC **r-*, making it possible to reconstruct PWC **rəχ^wə*; unfortunately, the Abkh. words, which could have confirmed this, are lacking; Abkh. *a-χ^wša* ‘baked butter’, proposed by A. I. Abdokov /Abdokov 1973, 68/ and A. K. Shagirov /Šagirov 1977: II, 78/, must be distinguished from this root due to phonetic considerations]).

5.16. PIE **sūr-/s^wer-* ‘sour’ (OHGerman. **sūr* ‘sour’ and other Germ. words; Lith. *súras* ‘salty’, *súris* ‘cheese’; Slav. **syrъ*; OIr. *serb*, Welsh *chwerw* ‘bitter’ [**syeruo-*]; see [WP: II, 513]): PNC **š:wirV* ‘curds, milk and similar’. (PL **š:wir* > Ag. *š:ür* ‘liquid brynza / sheep’s milk cheese’; PN **šūra* ‘milk’ > Chech., Ing. *šura*, Btsb. *šur*; PAT **a-š^wə* ‘cheese’ > Abkh. *aš_m*, Abaz. *aš^wə*).

It is not yet clear by what path this root got into several modern Iranian languages (Pers. *šōr*, Pehl. *sōr*, Sak. *sura-* ‘salty’ (Bailey 1967, 345; Abaev 1979, 170-171)), from where it spread to Turkic (Räsänen 1969, 449) and secondarily into the East Caucasian languages (cf. Tab., Lezg. *šur* ‘curds’, Kryz. *šur* ‘a kind of simple kvass’; Chech. *šowr* ‘cheese brine, cheese pickle’ — all of these are relatively new borrowings, far from claiming PEC or PNC antiquity).

5.17. PIE **lengh-* ‘shame, to put to shame’ (Gk. ἐλέγχω ‘to slander, to disgrace, to defame’, ἐλεγχος ‘disgrace, slander’; Latv. *langāt* ‘to swear [maledict], to curse’; Mlr. *lang* ‘shame, deceit’ [WP: II, 436; Frisk: I, 486-487]; cf. also Hitt. *lenk-* ‘to swear [oath], to vow’ *lenka-* ‘vow, oath’ [Kronasser 1956, 171]): PEC **limqqIV* (**rimqqIV*) ‘shame; alarm, anxiety’ (PL **liwqI*/**riwqI* ‘shame’ > Arch. *libχI*, Lezg. *revü*, Rut. *riqI*, Kryz. *reh*; Lak *liχaI-wu* ‘alarm, anxiety’ [> Arch. *laχIa-ti*], Av. *limhi* ‘a guilty look, aspect, appearance’, *limh-ize* ‘to look, watch guiltily’).

The isoglosses examined above are sufficient for an attempt at establishing correspondences between the PNC and PIE phonological systems; as is well known, a

more or less regular system of correspondences can be established not only on the basis of a multitude of ancient related lexemes but on a multitude of borrowings as well.²¹

1. SYSTEM OF CONSONANTISM

1.1. Labial consonants

In PNC four labial plosives are reconstructed: voiceless (aspirated) *p*, tense (unaspirated) *p̄*, voiced *b* and ejective *p̣*, and three sonorants (*w*, *u* and *m*). Between PIE and PNC the following correspondences are reconstructed:

PNC	PIE	Examples
*p	*p	3.9. (<i>*pwīHV</i> – <i>*pel-</i>), 3.10 (<i>*pinçcwV</i> – <i>*pītu-</i>), 5.13 (PWC <i>*pəɾəɟə</i> – <i>*pɾk-</i>), 2.10 (<i>*pwərccV</i> : <i>*pērs-nā</i>)
*p̄	*bh	2.12 (<i>*pūggV-b-</i> : <i>*bhāghu-</i>), 3.13 (<i>*pōnqqIwe-</i> : <i>*bhā(u)go-</i>)
*b	*bh-, *-u-	3.14 (<i>*bVrč-</i> : <i>*bhar(e)s-</i>), 3.1 (<i>*HVbVgV</i> : <i>*(H)auig-</i>)
*p̣	*b(h)	1.9 (<i>*GG(w)VIpV</i> : <i>*g̣wēb(h)-</i>)
*m	*m	2.13 (<i>*cwājmi</i> : <i>*saim-</i>), 2.14 (<i>*žwēmV</i> : <i>*stomen-</i>), 3.4 (<i>*kkārmušV</i> : <i>*kermus-</i>), 3.22 (<i>*śālmā</i> : <i>*amas-l-</i>), 4.6 (<i>*χamV</i> : <i>*kom-</i>), 5.4 (<i>*mōrqqwV</i> : <i>*mar(o)g-</i>), 5.7 (<i>*mašwV</i> : <i>*miz-dho-</i>), 5.14 (<i>*hwīmīžzu</i> : <i>*medhu-</i>)
*w	*bh-, -u-	3.12 (<i>*wēIrqwi</i> : <i>*bherəg-</i>); 1.2 (<i>*h̄mncwV</i> : <i>*ek̄uo-</i>), 1.6 (<i>*pāHäkwV</i> : <i>*pek̄u-</i>), 2.3 (<i>*kwāhmi</i> : <i>*Huəlānā</i>), 2.9 (<i>*ççākwV</i> : <i>*tuak-</i>), 4.7 (<i>*çəwli</i> : <i>*kūl-</i>), 4.12 (<i>*çiwlu</i> : <i>*k̄seul-</i>), 5.10 (<i>*ccōjwīlhV</i> : <i>*kiāuero-</i>), 5.12 (<i>*?V-twVr-</i> : <i>*tuer-</i>), 5.16 (<i>*š:wīrV</i> : <i>*suer-/sūr-</i>), 3.10 (<i>*pinçcwV</i> : <i>*pītu-</i>)
*u	*u	5.6 (<i>*uVjcV</i> : <i>*ues(-no-)</i>)

To these rules it is necessary to append several observations.

1. In a great number of cases we observe in PIE in place of the North-Caucasian initial consonants **p̄-*, **b-*, **w-* not the expected **bh-* but voiceless **p-*. Cf. examples 1.6 (**pāHäkwV* : **pek̄u-*), 1.10 (**pVšwV* : **p(e)isk-*), 3.11 (**biInk̄kwV* : **peuk̄-*), 4.4 (**bVrVtV* ~ *w-* : **pert(h)-*), 1.7 (**wālr̄χ̄wə* : **porko-*). This divergence is easily explained: in PIE the

21. A certain number of the comparisons proposed above may prove in fact to be later borrowings (already after the breakup of PIE), insofar as contacts between the Indo-European and North Caucasian languages continued, seemingly, into later epochs as well. This especially relates to those of the Indo-European roots examined above that are attested only in a few of the daughter languages and are characterized by irregular reflexes. There is no doubt, however, that in the overwhelming mass of cases it is reasonably certain that the roots examined above are reconstructions on the PIE level.

combination within one root of a voiced aspirated consonant and voiceless consonant was prohibited, as a result of which a voiced aspirated consonant before a following voiceless consonant became voiceless.²²

2. The sonorant **m* regularly corresponds to PIE **m* (see above), but in those instances when it is the first element of a medial cluster of consonants, in PIE we regularly have **n*: cf. examples 2.5 (**qām̃q̃a* : **kenk-*), 3.23 (**ʔālm̃qqwV* : **(H)enk^w-*), 5.17 (**tim̃qqIV* : **lengh-*).

3. The sonorant **w* in PNC has a special status: namely, it can occur as the second element of a consonant cluster (something interdicted for the other sonorants). In an independent position (that is, in initial position, in intervocalic locations, and as the first component of a consonant cluster) its reflex in PIE is realized in the same way as that of PNC **b* (that is, as **bh* in initial position, but as **u* in other positions. In the position of the second component of a cluster it can also be reflected in P as **u* (cf. examples 1.2, 1.6, 2.3, 2.9, 4.7, 4.12, 5.12, 5.16), and apparently, 2.9 and 4.14 as well, where it is necessary to presuppose it has undergone metathesis. However, the glide character of the pronunciation of **w* in these cases in PNC (cf. the treatment of similar clusters as labialized consonants in many daughter languages, often with a secondary loss of labialization) caused, apparently, several other types of correspondences as well of PNC **w* in PIE:

a) Metathesis of labialization (PIE diphthongs with *-u-*), cf. examples 3.11 (**bīlñk̃k̃wV* : **peuk-*), 3.13 (**pōñqqIwe* : **bhā(u)ḡo-*), 5.9 (**q̃q̃wīl̃q̃a* : **keuk-*), 5.15 (**reñxwV* : **reugh-*);

b) Clusters of velar consonants with **w* reflected as PIE labiovelars, cf. examples 1.9 (**GG(w)ṼIp̃V* : **g^wēb(h)-*), 2.2 (**lāHāḡwV* : **l̃ek^w-*), 2.7 (**qqwata* : **g^wet-*), 2.11 (**xwiñk̃wV* : **k^wenk^we > *penk^we*), 3.8 (**xwīrk(w)V* : **k^werk^wo- > *perk^wo-*), 3.23 (**ʔālm̃qqwV* : **(H)enk^w-*), 4.1 (PWC **ḡ^wašwV* : **ag^w(e)sī*), 4.9 (**k̃wārV* : **k^wer-*), 4.10 (**xIwērV* : **g^werān-*), 4.17 (PWC **g^wara* : **g^weru-*);

c) Full loss of labialization. This phenomenon is observed after labial consonants (it should be noted that in such cases the reconstruction of **w* in PNC as well appears fairly hypothetical), cf. example 3.9 (**pwīl̃V* : **pel-*); fairly often after apical and lateral consonants, cf. examples 1.7 (**wāl̃r̃x̃w* : **porko-*), 1.8 (**ʔīl̃c̃wīl̃V* : **ster-*), 1.10 (**pVšwV* : **p(e)is-k-*), 2.13 (**c̃wāḡmī* : **saim-*), 2.14 (**z̃wēmV* : **stomen-*), 2.15 (**zwīlerzwV* : **s/pel̃ḡh-en-*), 2.17 (**ʔaraḡwV* : **orso-*), 3.3 (**c̃wēKV* : **kēko-*), 3.15 (**nāHāḡcwV* : **nedo-*), 3.17 (**λwiñt̃V* : **lento-*), 3.18 (**λwiñʔi* : **līno-*), 3.20 (**ʔāžwV* : **(H)aiḡ-*), 4.1 (PWC **ḡ^wašwV* : **ag^w(e)sī*), 5.7 (**mašwV* : **mizdho-*). However, cases of the loss of labialization after back consonants as well are not infrequent, cf. examples 2.4 (**kwVšV* : **ka(i)s-*), 2.6 (**k̃wVnV* : **konā-mo-*), 3.12 (**wēl̃r̃q̃wī* : **bherāḡ-*), 5.4 (**mōr̃qqwV* : **mar(o)ḡ-*).

4. By analogy with other local series (see below) we would expect that PIE voiceless **p* should correspond to PNC ejective *p̣*. However, in the sole example (1.9 **GG(w)ṼIp̃V* : **g^wēb(h)-*) we have **b(h)*. It should be noted that in PNC **p̣* is an exclusively

22. In principle a different development could have taken place, namely the voicing of a voiceless consonant. In connection with this it is interesting to consider PIE **bhūḡo-* ‘goat, ram’ (see *WP*: I, 189) in the capacity of a possible etymological doublet for **peku-* (from PNC **pāHāḡwV*), although the difference in the vocalism is difficult to explain. Cf. also Germ. **barha-* ‘porcus castratus’, which does not have the hoped-for etymology and may reflect an archaic type of the root **bhorko-* (< PNC **wāl̃r̃x̃w*).

rare phoneme with not very clear-cut reflexes; we do not exclude that in this case it is necessary to reconstruct PEC $*\bar{p}$ (cf. the PL form $*qol\bar{p}$), but to consider abruptness in PN secondary. In any case, on the basis of only one example it is difficult to reach conclusions of any sort.

An examination of the correspondences of consonants in the labial series already leads us to the conclusion that the isoglosses examined above are the result of borrowings from PNC (or from some source very close to PNC) into PIE. In reality, the development of $*bh > p$ in the cases of the type $*porko-$ should have taken place already on Indo-European soil; had the direction of the borrowings been from PIE into PNC this development would be completely incomprehensible, because in the place of a single PIE $*p$ we have in PNC four reflexes ($*p$, $*\bar{p}$, $*b$ and $*w$). For exactly this reason it is easy to explain the loss of the labial articulation in the series of consonant clusters when the borrowing is from PNC to PIE, but it would be difficult to explain its secondary appearance in PNC in the instance of reception via the opposite direction of borrowing. The identical reflex in PIE of the PNC phonemes $*b$ and $*w$ is easy to explain, knowing that $*w$ in PNC in an independent position was pronounced, most likely, as a labiodental β (cf. the development of $*w > b$ in the majority of the daughter languages), but it would be significantly more difficult to interpret the appearance of the three reflexes ($*\bar{p}$, $*b$, and $*w$) in PNC in the place of the one and only initial $*bh$ in PIE, given an assumption that borrowing was from PIE into PNC. The remaining correspondences (see below) in effect seem as well to support the conclusion that borrowing was into PIE.

1.2 Dental consonants (occlusives and sonorants).

In PNC four dental stops are reconstructed: voiceless (aspirated) $*t$, tense (unaspirated) $*\bar{t}$, voiced $*d$ and ejective $*t'$, and three sonorants ($*n$, $*r$ and $*j$).

The correspondences between PNC and PIE are worked out as follows:

PNC	PIE	Examples
$*t$	$*t$	2.7 ($*qqwata : *g^w et-$), 5.12 ($*?V-twVr- : *tuer-$)
$*\bar{t}$	$*d-$, $*-t-$	1.5 ($*fVqV : *dik-$), 3.17 ($*\lambda winfV : *lento-$), 4.4 ($*bVrVfV : *pert(h)-$)
$*d$	$*d$	3.6 ($*q\bar{u}lr-dV$ with suffixal $*-dV$, see above — PIE $*\bar{g}herd-$)
$*t'$?	(no examples)
$*n$	$*n$	2.1 ($*h\bar{a}InqV : *(H)ang-$), 2.3 ($*\lambda w\bar{a}hni : *Hual\bar{a}n\bar{a}$), 2.6 ($*k\bar{w}VnV : *kon\bar{a}-mo-$), 2.8 ($*\check{c}\check{c}\bar{a}nV : *\bar{g}(h)enu-$), 2.11 ($*\lambda win\bar{k}wV : *k^w en\bar{k}^we$), 3.15 ($*n\bar{a}H\bar{a}\check{c}wV : *nedo-$), 3.17 ($*\lambda winfV : *lento-$), 3.18 ($*\lambda win^?i : *l\bar{i}no-$), 4.2 ($*\check{c}\bar{o}n\check{c}V : *(H)anat\bar{a}$), 4.5 ($*ni\check{c}V : *n\bar{s}i-$)
$*r$	$*r$	1.7 ($*w\bar{a}lr\lambda\lambda w : *porko-$), 2.10 ($*p\bar{w}arccV : *p\bar{e}rs-n\bar{a}$), 2.16 ($*k\bar{r}(w)V : *k\bar{e}r-$), 2.17 ($*?ar\bar{a}\check{c}wV : *orso-$), 3.4 ($*kk\bar{a}rmu\check{s}V : *kermus-$), 3.6 ($*q\bar{u}lrV : *\bar{g}herd-$), 3.8 ($*\lambda w\bar{r}k(w)V : *k^w erk^wo-$), 3.12 ($*w\bar{e}lrqwi : *bhera\bar{g}-$), 3.14 ($*bVr\check{c}- : *bhar(e)s-$), 3.16 ($*ra\lambda\lambda V : *rugh\bar{i}o-$), 4.3 ($*Ha\check{z}3\bar{a}rV : *(H)edl\bar{i}ro-$), 4.4 ($*bVrVfV : *pert(h)-$), 4.9

PNC	PIE	Examples
		(* <i>kwärV</i> : * <i>k^wer-</i>), 4.10 (* <i>IwërV</i> : * <i>g^werän-</i>), 4.15 (PWC * <i>g^wərə</i> : * <i>g^weru-</i>), 5.1 (* <i>ār(H)V</i> : * <i>ārHo-</i>), 5.2 (* <i>üççürV</i> : *(H) <i>ağro-</i>), 5.4 (* <i>mörqəwV</i> : * <i>mar(o)ğ-</i>), 5.5 (* <i>öIrVc(w)e</i> : *(H) <i>areğ-</i>), 5.8 (* <i>kərķēlV</i> : * <i>korkā-</i>), 5.12 (* <i>ʔV-twVr-</i> : * <i>t_uer-</i>), 5.13 (PWC * <i>pərayə</i> : * <i>p_ɪrk-</i>), 5.15 (* <i>renxwV</i> : * <i>reugh-</i>), 5.16 (* <i>š:wirV</i> : * <i>s_uer-</i> / * <i>s_uir-</i>)
*j	*i̯ / *Ø	1.1 (* <i>Hējzú</i> : *(H) <i>aiğ-</i>), 2.13 (* <i>čwǎjmi</i> : * <i>saim-</i>), 3.21 (* <i>ǎjžālhV</i> : *(H) <i>edhl-</i>), 5.6 (* <i>uVjcV</i> : * <i>ues(-no-)</i>), 5.10 (* <i>ccōjwīlhV</i> : * <i>kiāuero-</i>)

REMARKS

1. The reflex of **t̥* in PIE is reminiscent of the reflexes in several of the present-day Dagestanian languages of the Archi type, where **t̥* is reflected as voiced *d-* initially, but as *-t̥-* medially.

2. The sonorant **n* in medial combinations sometimes drops out in PIE. This occurs:

a) before apical affricants, cf. examples 1.2 (**hīnčwV* : **ek_uo-*), 3.10 (**pinçcwV* : **pītu-*). The preservation of **n* in example 4.2 (**onççV* : *(H)*anatā*) is explained, apparently, by an early epenthetic vowel between *n* and *çç* in the source language (cf. for the three words observed here, for example, the following Avar words: *č* (< **iču*) 'horse', *piç* 'resin', but *nuça* 'door', where the very same development is observed as that in PIE.) In this way, this peculiarity of the PIE reflexes, most likely, is explained by the particularities of the phonological system of the PNC dialect that served as the source of the borrowings;

b) in those cases when in PIE a metathesis of labialization took place (see above, under 1.1. Labial consonants, 3.a.), cf. examples 3.11 (**bīlnkḵwV* : **peuk-*), 3.13 (**pōlnqwe* : **bhā(u)ğo-*), 5.15 (**renxwV* : **reugh-*). The preservation of *-n-* in these cases would have led to the formation of phonetic structures inadmissible for PIE, combining two sonants in a non-syllabic function within a single syllable (**peunk-*, **bhaunğo-* and **reungh-*). In that way this development, seemingly, took place already on Indo-European soil.

3. The sonant **j* is a fairly rare phoneme in PNC; for this reason we do not have any examples of its reflexes in the initial and intervocalic positions in PIE. In medial consonant combinations **j* is reconstructed only in a very limited number of cases, namely when in the root there are sibilants or palatal affricates, producing the PN reflex **st* (the development of **C*, **Č* > PN **st* seemingly is complicated merely by its presence in a syllable that contains an affricate of the sonorant **j*). Judging by the available examples, PIE reflects this **j* as **i* when followed by **a* (cf. examples 1.1, 2.13, 5.10), but it has a zero reflex after **e* (cf. examples 3, 21, 5.6, 5.10). In several cases PIE has diphthongs with **i* (or syllabic **i*, possibly, this being a step in the reduction of original **ei*/**oi*), whereas in the PNC reconstruction there is an absence of the **j*, cf. examples 2.4 (**kwVšV* : **kais-*), 3.20 (**ǎžwV* : *(H)*aiğ-*), 5.7 (**mašwV* : **miz-dho* < **meis-dho*). It is very likely that in these cases PNC had *-j-*, but the phonetic structure of these roots is such that with the presently available correspondences we simply are unable to reconstruct it.

4. PNC **r* in the absolute majority of cases (whether in an independent position or in combinations) is reflected in PIE as **r*; see the many examples above. The unitary

exception is the position before sibilant affricates (> PIE palatal velars, see below), where in the two cases known to us *r is lost, cf. examples 1.11 (*čŵr₃V : *kēk-), 2.15 (*zŵiler₃wV : *s/p/elḡh-en). A similar development is characteristic for many North Caucasian languages, and it is possible to think that it is conditioned by the particularity of the dialect of PNC that had served as the source of the borrowings.

As we see, the correspondences between PNC and PIE in the area of dental consonants also support the thesis of the direction of the borrowing being from PNC (or a dialect of PNC) into PIE.

In the opposite case we would be obliged to consider that 1) both PNC *t and *f can correspond to one and the same PIE medial *t; 2) notwithstanding the absence in PIE of a sonant in medial combinations, in borrowed lexemes in PNC the parasitical sonants -n- and -r-, though having no Indo-European source, can appear.

1.3. Velar consonants.

The velar series from the point of view of the PNC phonological system was affricate. The general peculiarity of all the PNC affricate series consisted of the fact that they incorporated within themselves besides plosive consonants spirants as well. In addition, each of the plosive consonants had a geminate correlate (from the phonological point of view similar geminates can be regarded either as combinations of two identical affricates or as combinations of affricate plus harmonic spirant).

For PNC four plosive velars (*k, *k̄, *k̥, *g) and three velar spirants (*x, *x̄, *ɣ) are reconstructed. The reflexes of the PNC velar spirants in PIE are unknown (there are no examples). For the remaining velars the correspondences are worked out as follows:

PNC	PIE	Examples
*k	*k / *kʷ	2.4 (*kʷVšV : *kais-), 2.9 (*çčākʷV : *tuak-), 2.16 (*k̄r(w)V : *kēr-), 3.3 (*çwēkV : *kēko-), 3.8 (*x̄w̄irk(w)V : *kʷerkʷo-), 4.14 (*halkwV : *Hʷerk-)
*k̄	*ḡ(h) / *g(h)	3.5 (*k̄ālV̄kV : *ḡholg(h)-)
*g	*ḡ / *gʷ	3.1 (*HVbVgV : *(H)auḡḡ-), 4.1 (PWC *ḡʷašʷV : *agʷ(e)sī), 4.15 (PWC *gʷarə : *gʷeru-)
*k̥	*k / *k̥ / *kʷ	2.6 (*kʷVnV : *konə-mo-), 2.11 (*x̄w̄inkʷV : *kʷenkʷe), 4.8 (*k̄ule : *klāu-), 4.9 (*k̄wārV : *kʷer-), 5.8 (*k̄erk̄ēV : *k̄orkā-lā)
*kk	*k/*k̄	3.4 (*kkärmušV : *kermus/*k̄-)
*k̄k̄	?	(no examples; cf., though, 3.5 *kālV̄kV : *ḡholg(h)-, where in PEC also possible is the reconstructed form *k̄k̄)
*gg	*gh	2.12 (*püggV : *bhāḡhu-)
*k̄k̄	*k	3.11 (*bīln̄k̄k̄wV : *peuk̄-)

REMARKS

1. The distribution of voiced and voiced aspirate correspondences for PNC *k̄ and *g is not totally hopeful: in the first examples, where PNC *g is presented, in actual fact the reconstruction *k̄ is also possible (the reflexes of *k̄ and *g are opposed best of all in the

Lak and Dargi languages, the data of which for the roots discussed above are not available).

2. Besides example 2.12, the PNC geminate **gg* is represented, apparently, also in example 5.13 (PWC **pəɾəɣə* : **pɾk-*), where PWC **ɣ* goes back to PNC **gg*. In PIE we have here voiceless **k* in place of the expected **gh* as a result of the particular Indo-European rule of the inadmissibility in a root of a voiced or voiced aspirate consonant, so that **pɾk-* < **pɾgh-* (cf. 1.1, remark 1).

3. On the possibility of the presence in PIE of a labiovelar in the position in PNC of the combination “velar + *w*” see above, 1.1., remark 3, a). As for Indo-European palatals, they seemingly correspond to PNC velars if the latter were located before a front vowel plus PNC **a* (cf. examples 3.5, 5.8); oppositely, before a back vowel PNC velars are reflected in PIE as non-palatalized (cf. examples 2.17, 4.8). Palatalization is absent as well in the presence in PNC of the glide **w* (cf. the examples above). With the velar consonants, the falling together in PIE of the reflexes of voiceless (aspirate) and ejective velars in a single voiceless **k* provides evidence of the direction of borrowing, from PNC into PIE (in the opposite case the motivationless appearance of two series of consonants in PNC in the position of one in PIE would be incomprehensible.)

1.4. Uvular consonants.

In PNC four uvular affricates (**q*, **q̣*, **G*, **q̤*), with geminate correlates, and three uvular spirants (**χ*, **χ̣*, **ɣ*) are reconstructed. All the uvular consonants are reflected in PIE as velars, with the following correspondences:

PNC	PIE	Examples
<i>*q</i>	<i>*g</i> / <i>*ḡ</i>	3.2 (<i>*ʔəqV</i> : <i>*(H)āg-</i>), 3.12 (<i>*wēlɾqwi</i> : <i>*bherəḡ-</i>)
<i>*q̣</i>	?	(no examples)
<i>*G</i>	?	(no examples)
<i>*q̤</i>	<i>*k</i>	1.3 (<i>*q̤ōlcV</i> : <i>*kaḡo-</i>), 1.4 (<i>*q̤VIV</i> : <i>*kol-</i>), 1.5 (<i>*īVq̤V</i> : <i>*dik-</i>), 2.5 (<i>*q̤āmā</i> : <i>*kenk-</i>)
<i>*qq</i>	<i>*g(h)</i> / <i>*ḡ</i> / <i>*g^w</i>	2.7 (<i>*qqwata</i> : <i>*g^wet-</i>), 3.13 (<i>*pōlɾqqwe</i> : <i>*bhā(u)ḡo-</i>), 5.4 (<i>*mōrqqwV</i> : <i>*mar(o)ḡ-</i>), 5.17 (<i>*lɾmqqlV</i> : <i>*lengh-</i>)
<i>*qq̣</i>	<i>*g(h)</i>	2.1 (<i>*hālɾqqV</i> : <i>*(H)ang-</i>), 3.7 (<i>*qqēlēqqe</i> : <i>*glōgh-</i>); an exception is 3.23 (<i>*ʔlɾmqqlV</i> : <i>*(H)enk^w-</i>)
<i>*GG</i>	<i>*g^(w)</i>	1.9 (<i>*GG(w)ṼlṗV</i> : <i>*g^wēb(h)-</i>)
<i>*q̣q̣</i>	<i>*k</i> / <i>*k^w</i>	5.9 (<i>*q̣q̣wīlq̣ā</i> : <i>*keuk-</i>), 5.11 (<i>*čVlq̣q̣wV</i> : <i>*kēk^w-</i>)
<i>*χ</i>	<i>*ḳ</i>	4.6 (<i>*χamV</i> : <i>*ḳom-</i>)
<i>*χ̣</i>	<i>*gh</i> / <i>*g^w(h)</i>	4.10 (<i>*χlwerV</i> : <i>*g^werān-</i>), 5.15 (<i>*renχwV</i> : <i>*reugh-</i>)
<i>*ɣ</i>	?	(no examples)

REMARKS

1. The uvulars are reflected in total in PIE as are the velars as well, with the notable exception that voiceless aspirates give in PIE voiced reflexes (as also do their geminal correlates). We note that the voiced affricates in examples 3.6 (PIE **gherd-*) and 3.7 (PIE **glōgh-*) might be secondary as a result of the action of the particular Indo-European rule of the inadmissibility in a root of two voiced non-affricates.

2. The tense spirant **χ* is reflected in PIE as **g^(w)* or **gh^(w)* (the distinction between these two reflexes is so far unclear). In two cases that we observe the reflection of **χ* as **k^(w)*, cf. examples 2.11 (**χwinkwV* : **k^wenk^we* > **penk^we*) and 3.8 (**χwīrk(w)V* : **k^werk^wo-* > **perk^wo-*). In these cases clearly there should have been present the reflex **gh^w*, but devoicing occurred as a result of the action of the internal Indo-European rule of the inadmissibility of the combining in a root a voiced affricate and a voiceless consonant (for other cases of the action of this rule see 1.1, remark 1).

3. As for the reflexes in PIE of the uvular consonants, just as with the velars, simple or palatalized velars may appear. However, the positional distribution here is not so clear and requires additional research.

The very fact of the reflexes of PNC uvulars as PIE velars testifies, one would think, to the direction of borrowing being from PNC into PIE: in the opposite case things would be completely unclear, as one and the same Indo-European velar series would be reflected in North Caucasian sometimes as a velar series and sometimes as a uvular series (as we shall see below, other North Caucasian consonants as well may correspond to the Indo-European velars).

1.5. Lateral consonants.

In PNC four lateral affricates (**λ*, **λ̣*, **Ł*, **λ̥*), with geminate correlates, two spirants (**λ*, **λ̣*), and two sonorants (**l*, **l̥*) are reconstructed. The phonetic distinction between the latter two consonants is not fully clear (PNC **l̥* in the daughter languages gives a single-form reflex, *l*, whereas **l* is reflected as *l* or *r*). The correspondences between PNC and PIE are fixed as follows:

PNC	PIE	Examples
* <i>λ</i>	?	(no examples)
* <i>λ̣</i>	* <i>l</i>	2.3 (* <i>λwālni</i> : * <i>Hualanā</i>)
* <i>Ł</i>	?	(no examples)
* <i>λ̥</i>	* <i>k̂</i> / * <i>k^w</i>	1.6 (* <i>pāHāλwV</i> : * <i>peku-</i>), 2.2 (* <i>lāHāλwV</i> : * <i>liek^w-</i>)
* <i>λλ</i>	?	(no examples)
* <i>λ̣λ̣</i>	* <i>gh</i>	3.16 (* <i>raλ̣λ̣V</i> : * <i>rugh-io-</i>)
* <i>ŁŁ</i>	?	(no examples)
* <i>λ̥λ̥</i>	* <i>k̂</i>	1.7 (* <i>wāIrλ̥λ̥wə</i> : * <i>porko-</i>)
* <i>λ</i>	* <i>l</i>	3.17 (* <i>λwinfV</i> : * <i>lento-</i>)
* <i>λ̣</i>	* <i>l</i>	3.18 (* <i>λwin[?]i</i> : * <i>lino-</i>)
* <i>l</i>	* <i>l</i> /* <i>r</i>	1.4 (* <i>qVIV</i> : * <i>kol(i)-</i>), 2.2 (* <i>lāHāλwV</i> : * <i>lier^w-</i>), 2.15 (* <i>zwilerzwV</i> : * <i>s/p/elghen-</i>), 3.7 (* <i>qqēlēqqe</i> : * <i>glōgh-</i>), 4.7 (* <i>čəwli</i> : * <i>kūl-</i>), 4.14 (* <i>halkwV</i> : * <i>Huerk-</i>), 5.3 (* <i>ʒʒalHV</i> : * <i>dholo-</i>), 1.8 (* <i>ʔilčwīlV</i> : * <i>ster-</i>), 5.10 (* <i>ccōjwīlhV</i> : * <i>kīāuero-</i>)
* <i>l̥</i>	* <i>l</i>	3.9 (* <i>pwiHV</i> : * <i>pel-</i>), 3.21 (* <i>ʔājzālhV</i> : * <i>(H)edhl-</i>),

PNC	PIE	Examples
		4.8 (* <i>kl̥ute</i> : * <i>klāu-</i>), 4.12 (* <i>č̥iwtu</i> : * <i>k̥seul-</i>), 4.13 (* <i>č̥alle</i> : * <i>sel-</i>), 5.17 (* <i>timq̥IV</i> : * <i>lengh-</i>)

REMARKS

1. The reflexes of the PNC laterals in PIE as velars are fully comprehensible from the articulatory aspect if the peculiarities of articulation of the laterals in PNC are taken into account: phonetically these were, apparently, lateralized velars, which led to a development from laterals to velars in many daughter languages. Several lateral affricates, however, are reflected in PIE as **l*; in all the cases known to us PIE has **l* in place of PNC lateral spirants.

2. PNC **l* always is reflected in PIE as **l*; as for PNC **l̥*, it may give either **l* or **r*. The distribution between these two reflexes is the following:

- a) PNC **l̥* is reflected as **r* in medial consonant clusters (cf. example 4.14);
- b) at the end of a root **l̥* can be reflected as **r* or **l*, apparently depending upon the preceding vowel. Cf. examples 1.8 (PIE **ster-*), 5.10 (PIE **k̥iāuero-*), where before **r* stands **e*, in contrast to examples 1.4 (PIE **kol(i)-*), 4.7 (PIE **k̥ul-*), 5.3 (PIE **dholo-*);
- c) in all the remaining cases **l̥* is reflected as **l*, cf. examples 2.2, 2.15, 3.55, 3.7.

We note here also that the hypothesized borrowing from PNC would not explain the reason for the reflection of Indo-European velars but Caucasian laterals (given the presence in PNC of a particular velar series).

The development of **l* > **r* (in the positions indicated above), apparently, was peculiar to the particular dialect of PNC which served as the source of the borrowings, such that explaining it on Indo-European soil itself is not possible; we emphasize once again that the transition of **l* > **r* is characteristic for the history of many present-day North Caucasian languages (and in particular for the West Dagestanian).

1.6. Sibilant lamino-alveolar consonants.

For PIE, as is known, one lamino-alveolar consonant is reconstructed — **s* (with a voiced variant **z* before voiced consonants). In contrast, for PNC four lamino-alveolar affricates are reconstructed (**c*, **č̥*, **ʒ*, **č̣*), together with geminated correlates, and three lamino-alveolar spirants (**s*, **š*, **z*).

Any correlation in PIE to the rare PNC **z* (as also to the other voiced spirants), as well as to PNC **š* is unknown. The lamino-alveolar sibilant spirant **s* is reflected in PIE as **s* in example 3.16 (**sūsV* : **sas̥io-*). The lamino-alveolar affricates also are occasionally reflected in PIE as **s*, cf. examples 5.6 (**uVjcV* : **ues(no-)*; here, however, only a Kartvelian borrowing points to the affricate: see above; relying on North Caucasian data proper the reconstruction **š* is also possible): 2.10 (**pw̥arccV* : **p̥ers-nā*); in two cases PNC tense **č̥* is reflected as **s*, cf. examples 2.13 (**č̥wājmi* : **saim-*), 2.17 (**ʔarācwV* : **orso-*). However, in the overwhelming majority of cases PIE reflects the PNC lamino-alveolar sibilants as palatals (the only local series whose PIE articulation could approximate the affricate, as is visible from the reflexes in the “Satem” languages), or as dental stops. Cf. the correspondences:

PNC	PIE	Examples
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*c	*ġ	1.3 (*qōlcV : *kaġo-), 5.5 (*?ōlrVc(w)e : *(H)areġ-)
*ʒ	a) *ġh	1.11 (*čVrʒV : *kēk- / *ġeġh-), 2.15 (*ʒwilerʒwV : *s/p/elġh-)
	b) *dh	3.21 (*?ājʒalhV : *(H)edhl-)
*č	*k	1.11 (*čVrʒV : *kēk- / *ġeġh-), 3.3 (*čwēKV : *kēko-)
*cc	*k	5.10 (*ccōjwīlhV : *kīauro-)
*cē	?	(no examples)
*ʒʒ	*dh	4.3 (*HaʒʒārV : *(H)edhro-), 5.3 (*ʒʒalHV : *dholo-), 5.14 (*hwīmiʒʒu : *medhu-)
*čč	*t/*d	2.9 (*ččākwV : *tūak-), 3.10 (*pinččwV : *pītu-), 4.2 (*ʳonččV : *(H)anatā), 3.15 (*nāHāččwV : *nedo-)

REMARKS

1. From the table it can be seen that the PNC lamino-alveolar geminates usually transfer to Indo-European as dental stops, whereas the PNC non-geminate lamino-alveolar sibilants transfer as palatals (although there are exceptions to this rule, cf. the transfer of *cc as *k, and also the double transfer of *ʒ as *ġh or as *dh)²³.

2. PNC *čVrʒV ‘weasel’ should have corresponded to PIE *kēġh-; the combination of voiceless and voiced aspirate consonants in one root, however, was inadmissible, and the variants *kēk-/ *ġeġh- are explained by the tendency to eliminate this combination.

3. Absolutely unique is the reflex of the initial combination *ʒw- in example 2.15 (PIE *s/p/elġh-en- ‘spleen’). We note that this root gives irregular reflexes in the Indo-European languages; not to be ruled out is that a special initial combination of the type *sb- should be established in it (cf. the Baltic reflex with voiced b-), having arisen as a result of an attempt to transfer PNC *ʒw-.

1.7. Sibilant palato-alveolar consonants.

In PNC four palato-alveolar affricates (*č, *č̌, *ʒ, *č̌), with geminate correlates, and three palato-alveolar spirants (*š, *š̌, *ž) are reconstructed. Also often cited as a reflex of the palato-alveolar sibilants is PIE *s: cf. for the spirants examples 4.1 (PWC *ḡ^waš^wV : PIE *ag^w(e)sī; in this root, however, an affricate also could have been the original, see below), and 5.16 (*š:wīrV : *suer-/ *sūr-). For the affricates cf. 4.13 (*čalte : *sel-), 3.14 (*bVrčnV : *bhar(e)s-). In one case (4.12, *čiwlu : *kseul-) the specific reflex *č in the form of PIE *ks- is observed — obviously, an attempt to transfer the double-focus articulation of the PNC palato-alveolar consonant. In the majority of the cases, however, the palato-alveolar

23. Interesting here is the presence in PIE, side-by-side with *pītu- (= PNC *pinčwV), of the root *pik̑, reflected in Greek πίσσα, Lat. *pix* ‘resin, pitch’, *picea* ‘pine’, *pīnus* (*pik-sno-) ‘pine, fir, silver fir’; possible also is Alb. *pišë* (*pik-siā) ‘fir, spruce, resinous tree’ (the Latin forms are in the final analysis the source of the Slavic, Baltic and Germanic names for resin [WP: II, 75; Vasmer: III, 226 with references]). Not to be ruled out is the possibility that we have before us as well a case of a double transfer of the PNC sibilant *čč, which has led to the formation of an etymological doublet in PIE.

affricates are transferred into PIE as palatalized velars (that is, similar to the sibilant spirants). Cf.:

PNC	PIE	Examples
*č	*k̑	1.2 (*h̑inčwV : *ek̑mo-), 5.11 (*čVIq̑qwV : *kek̑w-)
*ċ	?	(no examples)
*ć	*k̑s	4.12 (*ćiwlu : *k̑seul-)
*ž	*g̑	3.20 (*ʔǎžwV : *(H)aiḡ-)
*čč	?	(no examples)
*ċċ	?	(no examples)
*ćć	*g̑	2.8 (*ććānV : *ḡ(h)enu-)
*žž	?	(no examples)

REMARKS

n example 2.8 (PNC $*\check{c}(\check{c})\check{a}nV$ – PIE $*\check{g}(h)enu-$) PNC $*\check{c}\check{c}(\check{c})\check{a}nV$ can be reconstructed as $*\check{c}$ or as $*\check{c}\check{c}$ (decisive data for the Avaro-Andi languages are missing). Judging by the Indo-European reflex, however, $*\check{c}\check{c}$ is to be preferred (cf. below on the analogous reflex of geminated $*\check{c}\check{c}$).

2. Let us note that even given this general similarity the North Caucasian palato-alveolar sibilants are nevertheless reflected in PIE not entirely as one would expect palato-alveolar sibilants to behave: cf. the voiceless reflex $*\check{c} > *\hat{k}$ as against voiced $*\check{z} > *\hat{g}$; and the special development $*\check{c} > *\hat{k}s$ (as against $*\check{c} > *\hat{k}$). It is also characteristic that we have not come upon a single case of a reflex of PNC sibilants involving dental stops (see above).

1.8. Apico-alveolar sibilant consonants.

In PNC yet a third series of apical affricates is reconstructed, of which their common peculiarity is that in the Dargi and Nakh languages they yield lamino-alveolar reflexes whereas in the remaining East Caucasian languages they yield palato-alveolar reflexes (in West Caucasian some of the affricates of this third series yield lamino-alveolar while some yield palato-alveolar reflexes). Also reconstructed is a third series of apical spirants displaying a vacillation between lamino-alveolar and palato-alveolar language by language. To these phonemes we conditionally assign the characteristic of palatalization (although in actual fact this could well be some other characteristic making for an intermediate position of this series between lamino-alveolars and palato-alveolars). As in the other affricate series, four apico-alveolar affricates are reconstructed (*č̣, *č̣̣, *ʒ̣, *č̣̣̣), with geminate correlates, and three apico-alveolar spirants (*ṣ̌, *ṣ̣̣̌, *ʒ̣̣̣).

The apico-alveolar spirants (except *ž, (for the reflexes of which there are no examples) regularly give *s in PIE, cf. examples 2.4 (*kwVšV : *kais-), 3.4 (*kkärmušV : *kermus), 5.7 (*mašwV : *miz-dho /< *mis-/), 1.10 (*pVšwV : *p(e)is-k-).

For the remaining apico-alveolars the following reflexes are attested:

PNC	PIE	Examples
1	1	1
2	2	2
3	3	3
4	4	4
5	5	5
6	6	6
7	7	7
8	8	8
9	9	9
10	10	10
11	11	11
12	12	12
13	13	13
14	14	14
15	15	15
16	16	16
17	17	17
18	18	18
19	19	19
20	20	20
21	21	21
22	22	22
23	23	23
24	24	24
25	25	25
26	26	26
27	27	27
28	28	28
29	29	29
30	30	30
31	31	31
32	32	32
33	33	33
34	34	34
35	35	35
36	36	36
37	37	37
38	38	38
39	39	39
40	40	40
41	41	41
42	42	42
43	43	43
44	44	44
45	45	45
46	46	46
47	47	47
48	48	48
49	49	49
50	50	50
51	51	51
52	52	52
53	53	53
54	54	54
55	55	55
56	56	56
57	57	57
58	58	58
59	59	59
60	60	60
61	61	61
62	62	62
63	63	63
64	64	64
65	65	65
66	66	66
67	67	67
68	68	68
69	69	69
70	70	70
71	71	71
72	72	72
73	73	73
74	74	74
75	75	75
76	76	76
77	77	77
78	78	78
79	79	79
80	80	80
81	81	81
82	82	82
83	83	83
84	84	84
85	85	85
86	86	86
87	87	87
88	88	88
89	89	89
90	90	90
91	91	91
92	92	92
93	93	93
94	94	94
95	95	95
96	96	96
97	97	97
98	98	98
99	99	99
100	100	100

*ć	*s	3.22 (* ^ʕ ālmćā : *amas-l-), 4.5 (*nićV : *ḡsi)
*č	?	(no examples)
*ž	*ḡ	1.1 (*Hējžu : *(H)aiḡ-)
*č	*k	4.7 (*čəwli : *kūl-)
*ćć, *čč, *žž	?	(for all these geminates there are no examples)
*čć	*ḡ	5.2 (* ^ʕ üčćürV : *(H)aḡro-)

Although there are not very many examples, it is nevertheless apparent that the PNC apico-alveolar consonants are reflected in PIE in the same manner as the palato-alveolar consonants (see above). An exception is the development of *ć > *k̂ (in contrast specifically to the transfer of *č > *k̂s), as well as two cases where in place of PNC apico-alveolar affricates PIE has the combination *st (cf. examples 1.8 (*^ʕīlčwiV : *ster-, 2.14 (*žwěmV : *stomen-). Even so, these cases enable us to presume that in the PNC dialect which served as the source for the borrowings the apico-alveolar and the palato-alveolar series were distinct from each other.

1.9. Laryngeal consonants.

For PIE only one laryngeal consonant is solidly reconstructed — *H, reflected as *h* in Hittic and giving a null reflex in the remaining Indo-European languages. By contrast, for PNC an entire series of laryngeals is reconstructed, consisting of two simple (*ʔ, *h) and three emphatic (*ʔ̣, *ḥ, *ʕ) laryngeals (the emphatic laryngeals are also often called pharyngeals).

In view of the peculiarities of the reflexes of the laryngeals in the Indo-European languages material for the verification of the correspondences between PNC and PIE is limited to the roots whose reflexes are represented in Anatolian. Roots with medial and final laryngeals in this case was not found (in the sole case where Hittic shows a medial laryngeal — 5.1, PNC *ʔār(H)V — PIE *ārHo-, Hitt. *arḫa-* — the available North Caucasian material, unfortunately, not only does not enable us to determine the quality of the PNC laryngeal, but not even to settle the question of whether it existed in that position in general). As for the final position, the following correspondences are revealed:

PNC	PIE	Examples
*ʔ	*Ø	2.17 (*ʔarəčwV : *orso-), 5.1 (*ʔār(H)V : *ārHo-)
*h	*H	2.3 (*ḫwāhni : *Hualanā; here for PNC it is necessary to presume a secondary metathesis of *H from medial to initial), 4.14 (*halkwV : *Huerk-)
*ʔ̣	?	(no examples)
*ḥ, *ʕ	Ø	1.2 (*ḥānčwV : eḡuo-), 3.22 (* ^ʕ ālmćā : *amas-l-)

REMARKS

1. The rule of the correspondence of PNC *ʔ : PIE *Ø seemingly contradicts example 5.5 (*ʔolrVc(w)e : *(H)areǵ-). However, as we remarked above, it is not ruled out that the PIE roots with the meaning 'light, radiant' and 'silver' drew together secondarily, as a result of folk etymology. In Anatolian this root is attested only with the meaning 'light, white', while the meaning 'silver' is absent. Therefore in actual fact the root *(H)areǵ- 'silver' in PIE could well not have had an initial laryngeal.

2. In two cases — 1.8 (*ʔilçwīlV : *ster-) and 5.14 (*hwīmīʔʒu : *medhu-) — in PIE correspondence is absent for the entire syllable with an initial laryngeal. This phenomenon, probably, is conditioned by a reduction of the vowel of the first syllable in a tri-syllabic structure (we note that in both cases the vowel is weak, easily amenable to reduction; in cases where, given the same root structure, the initial vowel is strong PIE usually preserves it, cf. examples 2.17, 3.21, 4.3).

2. SYSTEM OF VOCALISM

The vowel system reconstructed for PNC is richer than the common Indo-European system. It consists of nine vowels (*i, *e, *ā, *ī, *ə, *a, *u, *o, *ū), each of which can be long or short (the opposition according to length has been preserved best of all in the Nakh languages, but it is obliquely reflected in the other East Caucasian languages as well)²⁴. Moreover, also reconstructed are pharyngealized vowels (although the latter may in the final analysis go back to constructions of the type 'vowel + laryngeal'). Apparently, in PNC there existed as well vocalic ablaut, but as of now a system of vowel gradation has not been reconstructed (for which reason reconstruction of the verbal vocalism has been greatly impeded).

The Indo-European vowel system clearly represents the result of an extended period of earlier development (it underwent very substantial changes, judging from a comparison with the original Nostratic system of vocalism, on which see OCNYa). In part, vowel ablaut alternations were imposed onto the old vocalic system, which in many cases greatly complicate reconstruction of the original vocal characteristic of a root.

As a result of all that has been shown above the restoration of correspondences between PNC and PIE is made extraordinarily difficult. Nonetheless it is still possible to establish definitive regularities.

2.1. Initial (Anlaut) vocalism.

First of all we must note that efforts to discover correspondences in PIE to such PNC characteristics of vocalism as pharyngealization and length-shortness have been unsuccessful. The pharyngealized vowels seemingly are reflected exactly the same as the corresponding non-pharyngealized vowels. Long PNC vowels can be reflected in PIE as long or as short, and the other way round — short vowels also may give either type of

24. The system of vocalism completely disintegrated in PWC, where it was reduced to a total of two vowels (*a and *ə); there are, however, many arguments that namely the East Caucasian system is the original one, but that in PWC it underwent a modification on account of a transfer of the timbre oppositions of the vowels onto the neighboring consonants (as a result of which there arose an extraordinarily complex system of consonants with overlying, one upon the other, correlations in accordance with labialization and palatalization).

reflex. In connection with this it is not out of place to recall that length in PIE, according to several hypotheses, appears to be a relatively late phenomenon. It is possible, therefore, that in the period of PNC-PIE contacts long vowels did not yet exist, that they arose later, already completely independently of the length/shortness of the vowels in the corresponding PNC roots. Also possible, however, is a different explanation for the situation we observe, if one presupposes that the opposition of the vowels in PNC, which we interpret as an opposition according to length-shortness, had some other sort of phonetic essence (for example, this could be an opposition of types of phonation); in such case the absence of a reflection of this opposition in PIE would be natural.

As for the correspondences of qualitative characteristics of the vowels, they appear in the following form:

	PIE	Examples
*i	*i	3.10, 3.18
	*e	2.11, 2.15, 3.9, 3.11, 5.14, 5.16, 5.17
*e	*e	3.3, 3.12, 4.10, 5.15
	*a	1.1 (5.5)
*ä	*a	2.13, 3.22
	*e	1.6, 2.2, 3.4
*i	*e	1.2, 1.8, 2.16, 3.8, 4.12
*u	*u	3.4
*o	*a	1.3, 3.13, 4.2, 5.4
*ü	*a	2.12, 5.2
*a	*a	2.1, 3.20, 4.11, 5.1
	*e/*o	1.7, 2.5, 2.8, 3.5, 3.21, 4.3, 4.6, 4.9, 4.13

REMARKS

1. Indo-European in general, as is known, avoided combinations of two sonants, one following the other, within a single root morpheme. A frequent incidence of this rule was the elimination of the high vowels *i and *u before a following sonant (from the phonological point of view, in PIE *i and *u within a syllable are functionally the sonants *i̯ and *u̯). This rule, apparently, explains the presence of *e in the position of PNC *i in the majority of the cases (cf. 2.12 *penk^we, 2.15 *s/p/elġh-en-, 3.9 *pel-, 3.11 *peuk-, 5.16 *s^wer-, 5.17 *lengh-). It is possible that this same cause led to the restructuring of the root in example 4.8 (PIE *klāu- / *klēu- vis-à-vis PNC *kude). In those cases where after a high vowel there follows a 'noisy'²⁵ consonant, the quality of the vowel is preserved (cf. 3.10 *pītu-, 3.4 *kermus-). Exceptions to the formulated rules are few: these are 3.18 *līno- (with *i in place of the expected *e) and 5.14 *medhu- (with *e in place of the expected *i). An unclear case is in ex. 3.19 (*sasjo- in place of the expected *susjo-).

25. Russian шумный [Ed.].

2. In the table it is clear that the PNC vowels **e*, **ä* and **a* are reflected in PIE identically: namely, they give:

a) **a* in initial position (that is, after a beginning laryngeal), cf. 1.1 (**(H)aiġ-*), 2.1 (**(H)ang-*), 3.2 (**(H)āg-*), 3.20 (**(H)aiġ-*), 3.22 (**amas-l-*), 5.1 (**ār(H)o-*), 5.5 (**(H)areġ-*). An exception to this rule is the reflex **e* in two 'tri-syllabic' structures (3.21 PNC **ʔājzāthV* : PIE **(H)edhl-*; 4.3 PNC **Ha33ārV* : PIE **(H)edhro-*), which, apparently, is explained by a reduction of the vowel in this position (cf. above on vowel reduction leading all the way to the loss in this particular position of the high PNC vowels **i*, **i*).

b) **e* (sometimes with the ablaut variant **o*) in all of the remaining cases, cf. 1.6 (**peku-*), 1.7 (**porġo-*), 2.2 (**liġek^w-*), 2.6 (**kenk-*), 2.8 (**ġ(h)enu-*), 3.3 (**kēko-*), 3.4 (**kermus-*), 4.7 (**kom-*), 4.11 (**k^wer-*), 4.12 (**ġ^werān-*), 4.15 (**sel-*), 5.8 (**korkā(-lā-)*), 5.15 (**reugh-*). The exception: 2.13 (**saim-*).

3. The specific PNC vowel **ü* in two cases is reflected in PIE as **a*, cf. 2.12 (**bhāġhu-*), 5.2 (**(H)āġro-*) and in one case as having developed as **ü > e*, cf. 3.6 (**ġherd-*). We note that the reconstruction of **ü* is based only on systemic considerations (in not one of the daughter languages is the reflex *ü* actually represented) and, possibly, is incorrect.

4. PIE **a* likewise regularly appears as the reflex of PNC **o*, cf. 1.3 (**kaġo- ~ -o-*), 3.13 (**bhā(u)ġo-*), 5.4 (**mar(o)ġ-*), 6.10 (**kiāuġero-*).

5. The most varied correspondences are seen in PNC for PNC **ə*, namely: 1) PIE **a*, cf. 2.9 (**t_uak-*); 2) PIE **e*, cf. 3.15 (**nedo-*), 3.23 (**(H)enk^w-*); 3) PIE **u*, cf. 3.16 (**rughio-*), 4.7 (**kūl-*); 4) PIE **o*, cf. 5.3 (**dholo-*), 2.17 (**orso-*). It is obvious that PIE did not have an analog for the transfer of this vowel (PIE **ə* had a completely different phonetic character).

6. In a number of cases the Indo-European correspondences to PNC roots reveal a degree of reduction of the sonants; the qualitative oppositions of the vowels given this circumstance, naturally are neutralized. Such is the cases for 5.6 (**_usi-*), 6.14 (**p_urk-*); a degree of reduction may appear as well, naturally, in the reflexes of other roots in the capacity of an ablaut variant. Judging by everything, the degree of reduction of liquid nasals is a relatively late, peculiarly Indo-European development (just as was vowel length as well).

Similarly, the vowel system of the source language of the borrowings differed somewhat from the PNC system we have reconstructed. Thus it is possible that in it the vowels **e*, **ä* and **a*, having been distinct in PNC, had fallen together, and that the vowel **o* had gone over to *a*; also that the hypothetical PNC **ü* had become some sort of *a*-form vowel. Also possible, however, are other interpretations of the situation we have here.

2.2. Final (Auslaut) vocalism.

So far it must be asserted that efforts to establish promising correspondences between PNC and PIE with regard to final vocalism have not been successful. This is explained in the first place by insufficiencies of reconstruction in both PNC as well as in PIE of final vocalism, which in their turn are conditioned by fully objective causes: for PNC there is an almost full reduction of final vowels in the majority of the contemporary languages, as a result of which the final vowels of the founding language must be reconstructed according to scattered, uncoordinated data from the Lak, Dargi and

Avaro-Andi languages, together with a taking into account of what is known about Proto-Lezgi oblique bases. In sum the final vowels yield to restoration, with greater or lesser promise, only for a relatively small number of noun bases for the verbs the situation is even worse). In Indo-European the final vowels underwent a sweeping morphologization: already on the PIE level the final vowels of noun bases are best regarded not as elements of the root but as morphological markers of a type of declension. As a result they are easily interchangeable, and to establish the original type of noun base (of the root) is frequently very difficult.

As far the correspondences between PNC and PIE, one can only point out that:

- 1) Usually corresponding to PNC bases in **i* are PIE bases in **oā*, cf. 2.3 **H₂alānā*, 3.12 **bherāgo/-ā*, 3.18 **lino-*;
- 2) PIE bases in **-u* correspond either to PNC bases in *-u* or *-o*, cf. 5.14 *medhu-*, or to PNC bases with a final glide *w*, cf. 1.6 *peku-*, 3.12 *pitu-*. Let us note, however, that the reverse is not true: PNC *u*-bases can correspond as well to other types of Indo-European bases, cf. 1.1 **(H)aiḡ-*, 5.12 **kseul(o)-*.

CONCLUSION

As a result of an examination of lexical isoglosses connecting the Indo-European and North Caucasian languages we must draw several important conclusions:

1. There is a large number of lexemes common to the reconstructed PNC and PIE entities.
2. Although between the PNC and PIE systems sufficiently regular phonetic correspondences can be established, the character of the shared vocabulary does not eliminate doubts that the common character of these lexemes is not the result of an original kinship but rather the result of borrowings. Characteristic is the presence among the lexical coincidences of words that are names of domestic animals and plants, terms connected with the raising of animals and the cultivation of plants (in part, the large number of names of body parts of animals), the many names of objects of everyday use, products for feeding, and trade-and-exchange relations. All of this indicates the active nature of the contacts between the Proto-North Caucasians and the Proto-Indo-Europeans. At that time the presence among the PNC-PIE isoglosses of a sufficiently large number of names of wild plants and vegetation as well as of terms for fauna such as 'frog', 'fish', and 'weasel' leads to the notion that we have before us evidence not simply of cultural contacts but of substrate relations.
3. A careful analysis of the phonetic correspondences enables us to come to the conclusion that the borrowing was done by the Proto-Indo-European side. Very many contrasts reconstructed for PNC are neutralized in the corresponding PIE lexemes, as is natural, in that PIE commanded a significantly poorer phonological system than PNC. In the case of a reverse direction of borrowings we would expect the formation within the PNC phonological system of a special, poorer subsystem typical for Indo-European borrowings (as this is observed, for example, in contemporary Caucasian languages when borrowing from Russian, or in the Korean, Japanese and Vietnamese languages when borrowing from Chinese). But here, to the contrary, it is clear that PIE assimilated PNC words into its system in the very most natural way — by means of the neutralization of phonological oppositions alien to it.

4. Analysis of the vocabulary provides grounds for several other important conclusions as well. In the first place, the contacts must have taken place prior to the disintegration of the common Indo-European unity. This is probable for the following reasons:

a) among the roots which were examined there is a sufficiently large number of them that have reflexes in Anatolian (and judging by everything we know, Proto-Anatolian broke away earliest of all from the remaining Indo-European dialects);

b) several phonological rules characteristic for PIE, apparently, were not yet in effect in the contacts we have examined. This relates first of all to the interdiction against combining within a single root morpheme voiced and voiceless aspirates, as well as of two voiced consonants. In addition, it is possible that in the period of the PNC-PIE ties there did not yet exist oppositions of length (which, by the way, by all appearances, are not reflected in Anatolian either — as the latest research shows [Ivanov 1982], Hittite *scriptiones plenae* reflect oppositions not of length but of accent.)

In the second place, the PNC dialect from which the borrowings were assimilated into PIE apparently already differed somewhat from the original common North Caucasian language. Analysis of the PNC-PIE isoglosses enables us to presuppose that in the source-language of the borrowings:

a) possibly the transition of **w-* > **b-* had taken place (characteristic for a number of later systems);

b) in a number of cases there had taken place the loss of the sonorants **r* and **n* in medial (Inlaut) consonant combinations;

c) the transition **l* > **r* had taken place (at least at the beginning of initial consonant clusters, but also in a number of cases in the intervocalic position); possibly, the vowel system was transformed (the falling together of the vowels **e*, **ä*, **a* and the change of **o* > **a* took place).

The presupposition that the PIE linguistic unity was superimposed on a certain dialect of the PNC language would allow us to explain why in the original PNC system there is an absence of Indo-Europeanisms (in a case of balanced PNC-PIE contacts the presence of borrowings more or less equally on either side would be expected, in that there are no foundations for attributing to the Proto-North Caucasians a higher cultural level than to the Proto-Indo-Europeans).

5. Proceeding from all that has been said above, and also from what we know about the time of the disintegration of the PNC and PIE linguistic unities (for PIE, the period of about the fifth to fourth millennia BCE; for PNC, the boundary between the sixth and fifth millennia BCE), we can date the contacts between PNC and PIE to the beginning of the fifth millennium BCE, that is, to the epoch of a fully developed Neolithic in Western Asia (with which the presence of many characteristically Neolithic terms among the lexemes examined above also is in agreement). Of course, this dating is still approximate, and in order to make it more precise, as well as to propose a geographical localization of the PNC-PIE contacts, a great deal of work still will be required. In whatever case, we hope that the elaboration of the problems here will make a contribution to the overall task of the reconstruction of the linguistic and ethnic situation of the Neolithic of Western Asia and Europe.

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ABBREVIATIONS OF NAMES OF LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS

Abaz.	Abaza	Arab.	Arabic
Abkh.	Abkhaz	Arak.	Arakul dialect of Lak
Ad.	Adygh	Arch.	Archi
Adzh.	Adzhar dialect of Georgian	Arm.	Armenian
Afgh.	Afghan	Av.	Avar
Ag.	Agul	Avest.	Avestan
Ak.	Akushi dialect of Dargwa		
Akht.	Akhty dialect of Lezgi	Bagv.	Bagvalal
Akhv.	Akhvakh	Balt.	(Proto-) Baltic
Akk.	Akkadian	Bartkh.	Bartkhi dialect of Lak
Alb.	Albanian	Bezht.	Bezhta
Alt.	Proto-Altaic	Bret.	Breton
And.	Andi	Btsb.	Bats(bi), Tsova Tush

Bud.	Budukh	Latv.	Latvian
Burshch.	Burshchag dialect of Agul	Laz.	Laz
Bz.	Bzyb dialect of Abkhaz	Lezg.	Lezgi
		Lith.	Lithuanian
Celt.	Celtic		
Cham.	Chamalal	Megr.	Megrelian
Chan.	Chan	MHGerm.	Middle High German
Chech.	Chechen	MIran.	Middle Iranian
Chir.	Chirag dialect of Dargwa	MLGerm.	Middle Low German
		MPers.	Middle Persian
Darg.	Dargwa		
Dyub.	Dyubek dialect of Tabasaran	Nostr.	(Proto-) Nostratic
Egyp.	Old Egyptian	OBret	Old Breton
		OEng.	Old English
Fit.	Fite dialect of Agul	OGk	Old Greek
		OHGerm.	Old High German
Geg.	Geg dialect of Albanian	Olc.	Old Icelandic
Gel'm.	Gelmets dialect of Tsaxur	OInd.	Old Indic (Vedic, Sanskrit)
Georg.	Georgian	OIr.	Old Irish
Germ.	(Proto-) Germanic	OIran.	Old Iranian
Gk.	Old (Classical) Greek	OLGerm.	Old Low German
God.	Godoberi	OLith.	Old Lithuanian
Goth.	Gothic	OPruss.	Old Prussian
		ORuss.	Old Russian
Hatt.	Hattic	Osc.-Umbr.	Osc-Umbrian
Hier.-Hitt.	Hieroglyphic Hittite	OSlav.	Old Slavic
Hin.	Hinukh	Osset.	Ossetic
Hitt.	Hittite		
Hunz.	Hunzib	PA	Proto-Andi
Hurr.	Hurrian	PAK	Proto-Adygh-Kabardian
		(Proto- Adygh, Proto-Circassian)	
Ing.	Ingush	PAT	Proto-Abkhaz-Tapant
Inkh.	Inkhokvari	(Proto-Abkhaz-Abaza)	
Ir.	Irish	PEC	Proto-East Caucasian
Iran.	Iranian	Pehl.	Pehlevi (Middle Persian)
Ital.	Italian	Pers.	Persian
		PHB	Proto-Hunzib-Bezhta
Kab.	Kabardian	PIE	Proto-Indo-European
Kad.	Kadar dialect of Dargwa	PL	Proto-Lezgian
Kait.	Kaitag dialect of Dargwa	PN	Proto-Nakh
Kar.	Karata	PNC	Proto-North Caucasian
Kartv.	Kartvelian	Prakr.	Prakrit
Kharb.	Kharbuk dialect of Dargwa	PTs	Proto-Tsezian
Khin.	Khinalug	PTsKh	Proto-Tsez-Khwarshi
Khv.	Khvarshi	Punjab.	Punjabi
Khyur.	Khyüurig dialect of Tab.	PWC	Proto-West Caucasian
Kryz.	Kryts		
Kub.	Kubachi dialect of Dargwa	Rheto-Rom.	Rheto-Romanian
Kurd.	Kurdish	Russ.	Russian
		Rut.	Rutul
Lak.	Lak(i)		
Lat.	Latin	Sax.	Saxon

MOTHER TONGUE

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Sem.	(Proto-) Semitic	Tokh. A	Tokharian A
Sem.-Ham.	(Proto-) Semitic-Hamitic	Tokh. B	Tokharian B
(Proto-Afro-Asiatic)		Tsakh.	Tsakhur
Shaps.	Shapsug dialect of Adygh	Tsez.	Tsez
Sirg.	Sirgokala dialect of Dargwa	Tsud.	Tsudakhar dialect of Dargi
Slav.	Proto-Slavic	Tung.	Proto-Tungus-Manchu
Sum.	Sumerian	Turk.	Proto-Turkic
Svan.	Svan		
Swed.	Swedish	Ub.	Ubykh
		Ud.	Udi
Tab.	Tabasaran	Ur.	Urantian
Tind.	Tindi	Ural.	Proto-Uralic
Tl.	Tladal dialect of Bezhta	Urakh.	Urakhi dialect of Dargwa
Tok.	Tokita dialect of Karata		

Notes to “Indo-European-North Caucasian Isoglosses”

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As mentioned in footnote 1, the above paper was first published in Russian, in 1988, and as far as we know, S.A. Starostin never revised it. Since then the *North Caucasian Etymological Dictionary* (NCED) was published in Moscow in 1994, providing the most comprehensive and authoritative compilation of North Caucasian (NC) etymologies (see references, below). NCED has been sharply criticized (notably by Johanna Nichols and Wolfgang Schulze; see the latter’s article in this issue, and Chirikba’s response), but has also been “accepted and endorsed by some of Russia’s leading specialists in Caucasian languages” (Bengtson & Starostin 2015, p. 25). In any case, no one to date has produced an alternative North Caucasian dictionary. Another point is that the precise forms of the NC reconstructions have sometimes changed, more or less significantly, between the 1988 article and the 1994 dictionary. For these the reader is referred to the dictionary itself, or its online version.¹

Another development since 1988 has been the gradual integration of the Basque language into Starostin’s “Sino-Caucasian” macrofamily, mainly through collaborative work since 1996 between S.A. Starostin and John Bengtson, with assistance from Václav Blažek, Alexei Kassian, and George Starostin. Most of this work was done through the Evolution of Human Language Project (EHL), sponsored by Santa Fe Institute. A consensus has formed among these researchers, based on lexicostatistical and grammatical analyses, that Basque and the North Caucasian languages form a distinct branch (“Euskaro-Caucasian”) of Sino-Caucasian. A milestone was the integration of the Basque Etymology Database (BED) into the Tower of Babel/EHL website,² in 2005; a revised version was put online in 2015. Simultaneously the Basque etymologies were integrated, where relevant, into the Sino-Caucasian Etymology Database. Finally, a comprehensive monograph about the lexicon, grammar, and phonology of Euskaro-Caucasian has recently been published (Bengtson 2017).

Regarding Starostin’s Indo-European–North Caucasian lexical comparisons, it appears that about three dozen of the NC lexemes cited also have Basque cognates. Of course the difference is that Starostin was citing the IE–NC parallels as evidence of NC substratal influence on IE, while the NC–Basque lexical parallels in the BED and in Bengtson (2017) are cited as evidence of a genetic relationship between NC and Basque.

In the following list the IE lexemes cited by Starostin are ignored, and the Basque lexemes from Bengtson (2017) are added, along with some explanatory notes. The letter.number symbols such as *N.10* refer to Euskaro-Caucasian etymologies in Bengtson (2017). I have also added the NC reconstructions from NCED, which frequently differ from those offered in the 1988 article.

- 1.3. PEC **qoIcV* ‘goat, she-goat, kid’ [= **qHōcV* in NCED]: cf. Basque **koco* ‘male quadruped’: (L-arc, BN) *kotzo* (Pouvreau, 17th c.), (BN) *kotxo*, *koxo*, *krotxo*, *khotzo*, (Z) *khotxo* id.; occasionally ‘human male’ (*gizon koxoa*) (*N.10*).

1. The preface, list of abbreviations, bibliography, and introduction (including a thorough comparative phonology), comprising pages 1–199, and are available on the Tower of Babel Electronic Library at http://starling.rinet.ru/texts_new.php?lan=en. The NC etymologies are accessible at <http://starling.rinet.ru/cgi-bin/main.cgi?>

2. <http://starling.rinet.ru/cgi-bin/main.cgi?>

- 1.6. **PNC** **p̄āHäλwV* ‘livestock’ [= **bhǎλwí* ‘small cattle’ in NCED], Bezhta, Hunzib *bittl* ‘(a) sheep’: cf. **Bsq** **bil-oc* ‘lamb’: (c) *bildots* ‘lamb (that has begun to feed itself)’, *bildos-ki* ‘lamb (meat)’. Forms without /d/, (B) *billos*, *billotz*, *billotx* ‘lamb’, (BN) *bilos-tegi* ‘sheep-fold’ and (B) *billos-narru* ‘lamb’s hide’ indicate earlier **biloč* (N.20).
- 1.7. **PNC** **wālIrλλwə* ‘pig, swine, sow’ [= **wHārλwə* in NCED]: cf. **Bsq** **urde* ‘swine, pig’, **ord-oc* ‘boar’: (c) *urde*, (Z) *úrde* ‘swine, pig’; secondarily ‘dirty’; also (c) *ordots*, *ordotz*, *ordotx* ‘boar’, probably a haplogenic compound of **urde* + **oroč* ‘male animal’ (N.21).
- 1.8. **PEC** **p̄līčwīlV* ‘heifer’ [= **HčwīlV̄* ~ **HlīčwV̄* in NCED], Avar *ƛač’ár* ‘heifer’: cf. **Bsq** **čahal* ‘calf, heifer’: (BN, L) *xahal* [šahal] ‘calf’, (Z) *xáhal* ‘calf, heifer’, (B) *txaal*, (B, G) *txal* [čal], (R) *xāl* [šāl], (Sal) *xal* id. (N.11).
- 2.1. **PEC** **hlānqV* ‘hip, part of the leg’ [= **?ānqV* in NCED]: ? cf. **Bsq** **hanka* ‘foot, leg, paw’ / ‘pie; pierna, pata (de persona o animal)’: (c) *hanka* ‘leg; foot; paw (of an animal)’, (Z) *ánka* ‘pied, patte, jambe’, etc. § In earlier publications I confidently offered Bsq **hanka* as a genetic cognate of the PEC word, but most Vasconists are quite adamant that the Bsq word is a recent loanword: “From Rom. (probably Occ[itan].) *anca* ‘haunch’, ultimately from Gmc. (probably Frankish) **hanka* ‘haunch’. This word is widespread in Romance: Occ. Cat. Cast. It. *anca*, old and modern Fr. *hanche*, all ‘haunch’ but with T[ransferred] S[ense]s like ‘ham’, ‘leg’ ” (Trask 2008). On the other hand, the supposed “Frankish **hanka*” is elusive to pin down; it is not found in the standard Germanic etymological dictionaries I consulted.
- 2.5. **PNC** **qāmāq* ‘a part of the foot’ [= **qāmāq(w)ā* in NCED], Dargi Kadar *q’unq’a* ‘knee’: cf. **Bsq** **konko-r* ‘hump, joint’: Basque (c) *konkor* ‘hump, bump, knob’, (B, G) ‘hunchbacked’, (R) *kunkur* ‘joint (of bones)’, (AN, BN, Z, R) ‘hunchback’, (Bzt) *purdi-konkor* ‘tailbone, coccyx’ (with **(e)=purdi*, ‘buttocks, arse’), (B) *az-konkor* ‘finger joints’ (with **hac* ‘paw, finger’), (R) *eri-kunkur* id. (with **elhi* ‘finger’), *belain-kunkur* ‘kneecap’, etc. (A.76).
- 2.10. **PEC** **pwārccV* ‘paw; ham, gammon’ [= **b[ə]cV* in NCED], Inkhokwari *buso* ‘fist’: cf. **Bsq** **borc* / **bošt* ‘five’, **bošte-ko* / **borce-ko* ‘hand’: (AN, BN, L, R, Sal, Azk) *bortz* ‘5’, (AN, Bzt, R) *borz*, (B, G, AN, BN, Z, R) *bost*, (AN, G) *bos* ‘5’; (B, G) *bosteko* ‘hand’, (L) *bortzeko* id. (M.6). § NCED notes that “In Av[ar] -r- is probably secondary (*púrc:i* < **bVc:-ri* with secondary assimilation **b- > p-*), since no resonant is present in related EC forms.” However, if Starostin’s proposal that PIE **pērs-nā* was borrowed from North Caucasian is correct, it would be additional evidence, besides Avar *púrc:i* ‘ham’ and Bsq **borc* ‘five’, that the PEC form was actually **b[ə]rcV*.³
- 2.11. **PEC** **χwinkwV* ‘fist’ [= **finkwV* in NCED], Bagwali *hunk’a* ‘fist’: cf. **Bsq** **hu[m]ki-tu* ‘to touch, feel’: (BN, L) *hunki-tu* ‘to touch, feel’, (Z) *hunki-tü*, (Sal) *onki-tu*, *ongi-tu*, (AN, Azk, G, L) *uki-tu*, (B) *uku-tu*, (B, G) *iku-tu* id.; (L) *uki* ‘touch, feeling’, (Bzt) *uki-tze* id. (V.13). § The match of eastern Bsq /nk/ ~ western /k/ is unusual. PSC **m* is unstable and in Bsq usually disappears in clusters. I have tentatively reconstructed Bsq **hu[m]ki-*, though so far I know of no other cases of Bsq **-mk-*.

3. It seems likely that Bsq **borc* and **bošt* were originally stem variants (allomorphs) in an earlier grammatical system. A similar patterning is seen in Bsq **berc* / **bešt* ‘cauldron, pail’, **fierce* / **fiešte* ‘intestine’, **fiorci* / **fiošti* ‘sky, storm’, and **mucu-r* (< **murcu-r*) / **muštu-r* ‘snout; edge, extremity’

- 2.12. PNC **p̥uggV* ‘side, part of the body from the armpit to the hip’ [= **būga* in NCED]: Rutul Ikhrek *bey-da* ‘near, at the side of’: cf. Bsq **bage* / **gabe* ‘without, lacking’: (B, G, R) *bage* ‘without’ (prep.), ‘needy, lacking’ (adj.), (B) *baga* id.; with metathesis: (EB, G, AN, BN, L, Z, Azk, Sal) *gabe* id.; also as a suffix, e.g. (B) *gaz-bage*, *gaz-baga*, *gaz-gabe*, (EB) *gaz-kabe* ‘without salt, unsalted, insipid’ (I.5). § The Bsq-NC semantic connection is rather tenuous, something like ‘side > beside, aside, outside > without’. For typology cf. OInd *sanutar* [adv.] ‘away, aside’, Gothic *sundro* ‘apart, aside’, OHG *suntar* ‘without’, Latin *sine* ‘without, -less’, etc.; OInd *bahis* ‘outside’ ~ Slav *bez* ‘without, -less’, etc.
- 2.13. PNC **cwājmi* ‘bile, gall’ [= **cwājme* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **beha-sun* ‘bile, gall’: (BN) *behazun* ‘bile, gall; hatred, bitterness’, (G, AN) *beazun*, (B, AN) *biazun*, (B) *beazun*, *biazun* id., (B) ‘gall bladder (of fish)’, (B) *biastun*, (L) *behazuñ*, *beazuma* ‘bile, gall’; (L-arc) *behazune* ‘affliction (woe, anguish)’ (A.88). § The Bsq word is a compound of **beha-* + **-sun*, or **-stun*, the latter part of which is compared with the EC words. Bsq (dial.) *bea-zuma* ‘bile, gall’ is convergently similar to Dargi Chiragh *sume* ‘gall, anger’.
- 2.17. PEC **ʔarəcwV* ‘bottom, anus’ [= **ʔarəcwē* ‘hind, bottom’ in NCED]: cf. Bsq **e=rece* ‘corner, edge, side’, etc.: (BN, Z) *eretze* ‘part, side; site, location; position’, (Z) *é(r)etz* id., (G) *ertze* ‘corner, edge, bank, side; fringe (of garment); part(ing) of hair’, (B, G, AN) *ertz* id., *itsas-ertz* ‘seashore’; (B) *ertz* ‘female genitals’ (I.3). § Note the semantic convergence of Bsq (B) *ertz* ‘female genitals’ and Avar (Chadakolob) *roc* (*rots*) ‘vagina’.
- 3.1. PEC **HVbVgV/*HVgVbV* ‘a kind of cereal’ [= **h̥wVgəbV̆ / *h̥wVbəgV̆* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **ogi* ‘bread, wheat’: (c) *ogi* ‘bread’, (AN, L, BN, Z) ‘wheat’, (AN) *ugi*, *oi*, (B, AN) *obi* ‘bread’ (O.9).
- 3.2. PEC **ʔəqV* ‘vineyard, fruit (juicy, edible)’: cf. Bsq **ok-arhan* ‘plum’: (B, G, AN) *ok-aran* ‘plum’, (AN) *ok-arin*, *uk-arain* id., (B) *txarri-ok-aran* ‘sloe’ (P.16). § **ok-arhan* may originally have designated the cultivated plum (cf. Lak *aq* ‘garden’, etc.) as opposed to wild plums and sloes (**arhan*).
- 3.9. PNC **pwīlIV* ‘a kind of leaf-bearing tree’ [= **phīlV* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **es-pel* ‘box tree’: (c) *ezpel* ‘box tree’, (R, Sal) ‘broom’ (implement), (Z, R) *ezpel-dói* ‘box scrub’ (C.11). § This is possibly a compound of **es-* ‘tree’ (a reduced form of **haice* ‘tree’: see 3.20, below) and **-pel*. Cf. **es-kur* ‘acorn, beechnut’.
- 3.10. PEC **pinçwV* ‘resin, juice, sap’ [= **pīnçwā* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **pista* ‘rheum’: (B) *pizta* ‘fresh rheum; sleep sand, (secretion from eyes)’, (B, G) *pista* id. § One of the rare Bsq **st-* correspondences to PNC tense **ç* (A.79). | For the sound correspondence cf. Bsq **hestu-n* ‘ring, link’ ~ PEC **HṽçV* ‘ring, bracelet’. The meaning of Bsq **pista* ‘rheum’ is close to that of Lak *pic* ‘sweat, dew’.
- 3.11. PEC **biInk̆kwV* ‘fir, spruce, pine’ [= **bh̆nk̆wV* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **muki* ‘gum, resin; mucus’: (Bzt) *muki* ‘gum, resin of trees; snot’, (B, G, AN, Azk, Sal) *muki* ‘mucus, snot’ (C.29). § In some of the Bsq words there appears to be blending with *muku* ‘mucus, snot’ < Lat. *mūcum*. Bsq **muki* exhibits the regular change of **bVnk* > **mVk*, with convergent changes in some NC languages, e.g. Tabasaran *muk’-ruk* ‘fir-tree’ (*-ruk* = “some obscure second element”).
- 3.12. PEC **wēIrqwi* ‘birch’ [= **wē[r]qwV* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **burki* ‘birch tree’: (BN) *burkhi* ‘birch tree’, (Z) *búrkhi*, (G) *epurki*, (L) *urkhi*, (B, G, AN) *urki* id.; (B) *turki* ‘birch’ (C.8). § The genetic cognacy of Bsq **burki* with PEC **wē[r]qwV* seems doubtful; from a phonetic standpoint, PEC **-rq-* should match Bsq **-k-*, not **-rk-*; also we would expect initial **u-*, not **bu-*. The Bsq word obviously resembles IE words for ‘birch’, but cannot be derived phonetically from

any actual forms. V. Blažek (p.c.) has suggested derivation from a hypothetical Gothic **burki* or **burkja*, an ablaut variant of NWGmc **berkjō(n)-*.

- 3.13. **PNC** **pōInqqwe* ‘oak, wood’ [= A. **mhērqwē* ‘birch; wood, timber’ + B. **mhōqwe* ‘oak tree’ + C. **mē[l]gwī* ‘alder tree’ in NCED];⁴ to B., cf. **Bsq** **moku-ī* ‘tree-trunk, log’: (B) *mukur, mokor* ‘trunk, base of tree; thick branch’, (R-Uztárroz) *mokor* ‘stunted, rounded tree’, (Z) *múkhür* ‘stout log’ (C.42).
- 3.14. **PEC** **bVrç-inV* ‘a kind of cereal, barley’ [= **bhē[r]çi-nV* in NCED]: cf. **Bsq** **bihi* ‘seed, grain, fruit’: (BN, L) *bihi* ‘seed, grain; (a) little’, (Z) *bíhi* ‘seed, grain, fruit, (a) little’, (Bzt) *bigi* ‘seed, grain’, (AN [Lezaka, Oyarzun]) *bi* (O.7). § For the correspondence of Bsq **-h-* ~ PEC **-rç-*, see Bengtson (2017, pp. 195–200, 219–24).
- 3.15. **PEC** **nāHāçcwV* ‘cane, rush, reed, rush (with spongy stem)’ [= **çwānHē* / **Hnāçwē* in NCED]: cf. **Bsq** **si(n)Hi* ‘rush, reed’: (B [Arratia, Orozko, Txorierrri]) *zii* ‘rush, reed’, (B [Durango, Gernika, Mañaria]) *zi*, (B [Plencia, Arratia, Orozko]) *ziri* id. (C.24). § A western Bsq (Bizkaian) etymon. Proto-Bsq could have been **sinHi*, but there is no evidence of nasal vowels in the extant forms (no B-arc or Z, R forms).
- 3.17. **PEC** **λwinīV* ‘firewood, wood’ [= **λwindV* in NCED]: cf. **Bsq** **i=thinti* ‘firebrand, ember’: (Z) *ilhinti* ‘firebrand, ember’, (Z-arc) *hilindi*, (L) *ilhendi*, (R) *ilinti, illindi*, (B) *ilinti, ilindi, illenti*, (B, G, AN, L) *illeti*, (Sal) *illendi* id.; with expressive /č/: (BN) *itxendi*, (BN, L) *itxindi* id.; (AN, Bzt, Sal, L) *ilindi* ‘dead ear of wheat’ (< ‘dry thing’?) (F.3).
- 3.18. **PEC** **λwin?i* ‘seed [in part, flaxen]’ [= **λwīn?i* in NCED]: cf. **Bsq** **a=the* / **a=thon-* ‘seed, grain’: (B, G, AN, Azk, Sal) *ale* ‘seed’, *ale-tegi, ale-toki* ‘granary, barn’, (G [Zarauz]) *alon-tza* ‘mixture of grain (wheat + rye)’, (BN) *alhor* ‘field (prepared for sowing)’, (Z) *álhor*, (G, AN, L) *alor*, (R, Sal) *alur* id. Probably also **al-* in (G, AN) *alkotz*, (B) *algotz* ‘husk, bran’ (C.32).
- 3.20. **PNC** **ʔāǰwV* ‘bush; tree’ [= **Hǎ(r)ǰwē* in NCED]: cf. **Bsq** **haice* ‘tree’: (R) *atze* id., (BN, L) *zu-haitz*, (Z) *zü-haitz*, (G) *zu-gaitz*, (B, G) *zu-gatz, zu-atz* id. (C.1). § Free-standing in R, elsewhere this element is in a compound with **sul* ‘wood’ (Q.51). Cf. **es-* (a reduced form) in Bsq **es-pel* ‘box tree’ (see 3.9, above) and **es-kur* ‘acorn, beechnut’.
- 3.21. **PNC** **ʔāǰālhV* ‘rowan; cornel’ [= **ʔāǰāl?V* in NCED]: cf. **Bsq** **haraic* ‘oak tree’: (BN, L) *haritz* ‘oak tree’, (Z) *há(r)itx*, (AN) *aritz*, (A, B-arc, R) *aretx*, (G) *araitz, areitz, aritz* id., (B) *aritz, aritx, aretx* ‘oak tree; tree (general)’, (B) *zul-aritz* ‘wild tree’, etc. (C.6) § The Bsq-NC comparison implies metathesis of the PNC form such as **Hǎt?āǰV* > Bsq **haraic*. The tree species denoted are varied, but all are deciduous. (Cf. the semantic range in the IE etymology cited by Starostin in set 3.13: Gk. *φηγός* ‘oak’; Lat. *fāgus* ‘beech’ ...; Kurd. *būz* ‘a kind of elm’; ... Slav. **buzь, *bъzь* ‘elder’.)⁵
- 3.22. **PNC** **šāImčə(-a)* ‘apple; medlar’ [= **šāmcō* in NCED]: cf. **Bsq** **mahač* ‘grape(s)’: (BN, L) *mahats* ‘grape(s)’, (Z) *māhāts*, (B) *magats, maats, matz*, (B, G, AN, Bzt, Sal, R) *mats* id., etc. (P.17) § The Bsq-NC comparison requires metathesis of the type **m[a]ʃ[a]éV* > Bsq

4. The NC forms cited under 3.13 in the 1988 article are later divided among three separate etymologies in the 1994 dictionary: the WC forms in A, the Avar, Andian, Dargi, and Lezgian ones in B, and the Tsezian in C. Bsq **moku-ī* is compared only with B.

5. Some of these proposed cognates are disputed: Blažek (2000/2001) rejects Kurdish *būz* and Slav. **buzь, *bъzь* and substitutes a different Iranian cognate, Gilani *fay / fīy* ‘hornbeam’, Indic forms like Panjabi *phāg* ‘fig tree’, and Slavic forms like Russian *bagór* ‘long wooden pole with iron extension and hook’ (< ‘pole made of beech’), all indicating that the PIE second consonant was velar **g*, not palatal **ǵ*. Either way, wide semantic variations in etyma denoting species of tree are well established.

- *mahać*. Cf. the metathesis in Adyge *nāptsa* ‘medlar’ < **bantsa* < **bVmc:wV* (NCED). **bantsa* is remarkably similar to Michelena’s reconstruction **banats* ‘grapes’. The semantic change of Bsq ‘grape’ ~ NC ‘medlar, apple’ ~ Burushaski **[m]iči-l* ‘pomegranate’ should not be surprising: cf. Rum *poamă* ‘fruit, apple’, dialect ‘grape’ ~ Fr *pomme* ‘apple’, etc.; and other ‘fruit’ etymologies.
- 4.10. PEC **χIwērV* **mill, millstone** [= **HēmχwV-rV* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **eihera* ‘mill’: (BN) *eihera* ‘mill (for grain)’, (L) *eihera*, (Z) *eihé(r)a*, (BN, L) *ihara*, (AN) *igara*, (Sal) *eiara* id., etc. (Q.20) § A northeastern Bsq derivative of **eiho-* ‘to grind’ (= PEC **HēmχwV* ‘to grind’).
- 4.12. PEC **čalle* **‘enclosure, pen, sheepfold, fence’** [= **čhalē* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **śale* > **śare* **‘net, grill’**: (c) *sare* ‘net, network’, (B) *sale* ‘grill in front of manger’, (AN) *sare* id., (BN) *sare* ‘manger’; compounds: (AN) *saroe* ‘sheepfold, barn’, (G) *sarobe*, (G, AN, BN, L, Bzt) *saroi*, (R) *saroī*, (Sal) *saure*, (AN, Azk) *sario* id., etc. (< **śare* + **ohe* ‘bed’), etc.; (B, G) *sal-etxe* ‘sheepfold, barn’ < **śal-* + **e=će* ‘house’ (Q.7).
- 5.1. PEC **ʔār(H)V* **‘field, plain’** [= **ʔārV* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **haran* **‘valley’**: (BN, L) *haran* ‘valley’, (B, G, AN, Z, R) *aran* id.; place names *Harana* (1291 CE), *Farana* (1236 CE), (Z) *A(r)améltze* ‘black valley’ (**haran* + **b=elc* ‘black’) (D.7).
- 5.2. PEC **šūrčūrV* / **šūrčēV* **‘meadow, glade, clearing’** [= **HčVrē* / **HrVčē* ‘clearing, uncultivated land’ in NCED]: cf. Bsq **čar* **‘bad’** (< **wild*): (BN, Z) *txar* ‘bad, shoddy, of poor quality, unsatisfactory’, (L) ‘naughty’, (L, BN, Z, R, AN) ‘small’, (B, G, L, BN) ‘delicate, weak, feeble’, (B, G, AN) ‘bad’. Augmentative *tzar* (L, BN, Z) ‘bad, perverse, wicked, evil’ (R.5). § The conventional derivation from Bsq **sahar* ‘old’ is less plausible, for phonetic and semantic reasons. The Bsq meaning ‘bad’ is related to the NC meaning ‘wild’: cf. the convergent semantics in Lezgian languages: Agul (Burshag) *č’ire-r* ‘bad, dirty’, Tabasaran *č’uru* ‘bad; wild (of plants)’, etc.
- 5.3. PEC **ʒʒalHV* **‘plain, plateau’** [= **ʒalV* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **sethai* **‘plain’**: (BN, L) *zelhai* ‘plain, flat land’, ‘flat’ (adj.), (G, Bzt) *zelai* id., (B) *zelai* ‘plain, ground’, (AN) *zelai* ‘plain, field’, etc. (D.5).
- 5.4. PEC **mörqṽwV* **‘stripe, strip, mark’** [= **mörqṽV* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **muga* **‘boundary, limit’**: (c) *muga* ‘boundary, limit’, (G) *mua*; also (B, G, AN, L) ‘occasion, moment’, (L) ‘season’, (c) *mugarri* ‘boundary stone’ (**muga* + **hari* ‘stone’), etc. (L.2).
- 5.8. PNC **kěrkělV* / **kěrkěnV* **‘pebble, grain, seed, kernel [dim.]; egg’** [= **kVrkV(-nV)* ‘small stone, grain, egg’ in NCED]: cf. Bsq **kankano* **‘fruit-stone, kernel’**: (B [Oñate]) *kankano* ‘large fruit-stone, kernel, almond’; secondarily (B, Bzt, Sal) *kankano* ‘large awkward man’ (C.34). § If /t/ in **kVrkV-* was original, Bsq has assimilated the first resonant to the following /n/ (cf. the dissimilation in Latin *cancer* ‘crab’ < **karkro-*).
- 5.11. PNC **čVq̄q̄IwV* **‘faeces, excrement, mud’** [= **čHīq̄wĀ* ‘dung, ordure, dirt’ in NCED]: cf. Bsq **esko* (**e=sko*) ‘wax’: (G, BN, L, Z) *ezko* ‘wax, candle’ (originally ‘beeswax’) (A.85). § Bsq **esko* is syncopated in the usual way, from **e=Seko*, or the like. The closest NC semantic parallel is Budukh *č’uq* ‘ear-wax; rheum; mold; fish eggs’; cf. Kryz *č’äq* ‘rheum’, Tsakhur *č’uq* ‘rheum’, etc.
- 5.14. PEC **hwīmīzzu* **‘honey’** / **mīzzV* **‘sweet’** [= **hwīmīzū* / **mīzV* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **esti* **‘honey / sweet’**: (c) *ezti* id. (P.21) § The Bsq phonetic development was something like **emsti* > **ēsti* > **esti* (cf. Archi *ic* ‘sweet’, *imc* ‘honey’, etc.). The correspondence of Bsq **-st-* = PNC (tense) **-č-*, **-č-*, **-z-*, under certain conditions, is recurrent (see also 3.10, above).
- 5.15. PNC **renχwV* **‘butter; milk’** [= **rēnχwĀ* in NCED]: cf. Bsq **haragi* **‘meat, flesh’**: (BN, L) *haragi* ‘meat, flesh’, (A, B, G, AN, R) *aragi* id., (Z) *a(r)ági* id. (P.11). § Not quite clear phonetically. Bsq **-g-* = PNC **-nχ-* is normal and recurrent, but initial **h* is puzzling.

Additional abbreviations and references:

AN	alto-navarro = High Navarrese (Basque)
arc	archaic
Azk	Aezkoan (Basque)
B	Bizkaian (Basque)
BN	basse-navarrais = Low Navarrese (Basque)
Bsq	Basque
Bzt	Baztanese (Basque)
c	common or standard (Basque)
G	Gipuzkoan (Basque)
L	Lapurdian (Labourdin) (Basque)
PSC	Proto-Sino-Caucasian
R	Roncalese (Basque)
Sal	Salazarese (Basque)
Z	Zuberoan (Souletin) (Basque)

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ASLIP Annual Meeting | December 16, 2017

The annual business meeting of ASLIP was convened on December 16, 2017, 12 noon (EST), at the Department of South Asian Studies, Harvard University, 1 Bow Street, Cambridge, Massachusetts. President Michael Witzel, Administrative Editor Nicholas Davidson, and ASLIP member G.R. Foote attended in person; Vice President John Bengtson (Minnesota), Information Officer Jonathan Morris (Brazil), and ASLIP member Shomarka Keita (Maryland) attended via Skype.

President Michael Witzel called the meeting to order. The existing slate of officers and board members was reelected by a voice vote.

Other business issues discussed:

Publication of Mother Tongue: For the current issue (MT XXI) we are thankful for the generous donation from Jeffrey M. Smith of Greenberg Traurig, LLP (Atlanta) for printing and distribution of MT. Another goal is to publish MT electronically, possibly *only electronically*, to get more young people interested. Many back copies of MT are stored in the Harvard South Asian Studies office, and are available for nominal cost.

ASLIP Website (G.R. “Randy” Foote): ASLIP should set up a more extensive website, more fully searchable by Google. Randy agreed to look into finding a new webmaster (Brita Bengtson has resigned). <http://aslip.org/>

Other Ideas for ASLIP Development: (a) Polyglot Conference <http://polyglotconference.com/>; (b) TED talks; (c) ASLIP should become a unit of AAA (American Anthropological Association), with autonomous standing.

Financial Transfers: There is a need to bypass international financial complications that may, for example, wipe out a membership/subscription payment by charging a \$30 fee for the check or money transfer. Jonathan Morris suggested using a platform such as *Payoneer* and *Transferwise*. (<https://www.payoneer.com/main>; <https://transferwise.com/ca/>) There are probably others. “At present, I’m actively working with *payoneer*, but think that *transferwise* is potentially more interesting and has fewer strings attached. Both are latest generation payment platforms, which offer a sort of the way around the banking system and are a major breakthrough.”

Peer Review Committee (Jonathan Morris): There is a need to raise the standard of contributions to *Mother Tongue* – i.e., not to publish under-researched or badly written articles, and my suggestion is to establish a peer review committee, perhaps with a chairperson and with a panel covering various areas of expertise.

General Discussions

Nicholas Davidson expects to publish his book on Indo-Uralic in a few years. Mentioned psychology in history of linguistics. Mentioned (more or less) recent publications of interest for ASLIP officers and members:

Book on Yukaghir by Nikolaeva and relation with Uralic: Nikolaeva, Irina. 2006. *A historical dictionary of Yukaghir*. Berlin/New York: Walter de Gruyter.

New handbook of Ryukyuan languages and connection with Yayoi archaeology, (was 350 BCE), now around 900 BCE: Heinrich, P., Miyara, S. and Shimoji, M. eds., 2015. *Handbook of the Ryukyuan languages: History, structure, and use* (Vol. 11). Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co KG.

Martine Robbeets on Japanese and Nostratic: Robbeets, Martine Irma. 2005. *Is Japanese related to Korean, Tungusic, Mongolic and Turkic?* Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz. (= *Turcologica* 64.) 975 pp. [Note also: Robbeets, M. 2008. The historical comparison of Japanese, Korean and the Trans-Eurasian languages. *Rivista degli studi orientali* 81.1/4: 261–287.]¹

Juha Janhunen on Altaic homeland in Manchuria: Janhunen, J. 1996. *Manchuria: An Ethnic History*. Helsinki: Finno-Ugrian Society.

Biogenetics: mtDNA haplogroup M2 existed mostly in Africa at 30 Kya <<and it is the oldest lineage in India!>>. M 35: *Somalia → Egypt, Morocco. Found in Karnataka, India and Nepal; and in Slovakia (via the Roma). Y-chromosome haplogroup M81, the most common in North Africa (the “Berber marker” or “Maghrebi marker,” also, in small amounts, in the Iberian Peninsula, Italy, France, Sardinia, Canary Islands, and Latin America), is only 4 k old.

Note: M. Lionel Bender wrote about “Upside-down Afrasian”: “Bender (1997, 25, 27) [Upside-Down Afrasian. *Afrikanistische Arbeitspapiere* 50: 19–34.] was – contrary to previous Semito-centric classifications – “of the opinion that we must ‘turn Afrasian upside-down’. Semitic is not typical of Afrasian, but is a relatively recent offshoot of the *B(erber-)S(emitic-)Cu(shitic)* branch of Afrasian. ... Cushitic is so diverse ... that it is not a single family ... There may really be as many as six families: Beja (North), Afar-Saho, Agaw (Central), Lowland East(,) Highland East, and South Cushitic. If this is true, I would now propose adding Semitic as a seventh family of ‘Macro-Cushitic’.” Another – similarly daring – step in this scenario was ‘The possibility of including Indo-European in Macro-Cushitic’ as suggested by Bender (op. cit., p. 28, §5) on the basis of a few isoglosses ...” (Gábor Takács, in *Mother Tongue* XX, p. 24).

1. Shortly after the ASLIP meeting there was a *Workshop on the Historical Comparison of the Transeurasian Languages*, held in Jena, Germany, 9th–11th January, 2018. Under direction of Martine Robbeets, Max-Planck-Institut für Menschheitsgeschichte.

Discussions with Shomarka O.Y. Keita:

Implicit in the ASLIP perspective is looking for connections in what otherwise is a world of discrete language families. I see this conceptually as a kind of bridge making. The race construct and others that seek to create classifications whose units consist of uniform individuals that are mutually exclusive to be treated alone, is a way of searching for discontinuities. We have a dichotomized polarized world. The issue is not whether Nostratic is real, or that Afro-Dravidian or Indo-Pacific are real, but rather what is important is the journey to seek the connections which simply because we are all humans must exist. The issue is not “success” in the effort, but the effort itself.

I think constantly of ways to express the population and linguistic structure before modern sapiens left Africa. There is a directionality that leaves kin along the way that by definition must have a relationship—but it may not be retrievable—things happen that can obscure such history.

I hope that other ASLIP members will call out *Nature Communications*.² Any gene language associations are casual not causative. One cannot say remove a language entity from a language family based on biogenetics.

Please do have as many linguists and anthropologists as possible write *Nature Communications* on this piece. We live in a time of fake news, fake “facts,” dishonesty, fraud and the re-emergence of overt racism which no doubt will seep into some scholastic attitudes.

2. About: Baker, J.L., Rotimi, C.N. and Shriner, D., 2017. Human ancestry correlates with language and reveals that race is not an objective genomic classifier. *Scientific Reports*, 7(1), p.1572.

MOTHER TONGUE PRESS

Association for the Study of Language in Prehistory

Forthcoming:

A Comparative Description of Minoan, Etruscan and the Languages Related to Them

By Sergej A. Jatsemirskij

This work marks the completion of research which Jatsemirskij (1980–2017) conducted for many years, namely, a study in the field of Tyrrhenian languages: Etruscan, several closely related idioms of the 1st millennium BCE (represented by a much smaller number of inscriptions), and the ancient language of Crete, known as Minoan to the specialists in Mediterranean linguistics, classical philology and ancient history (Sir Arthur Evans's "Linear A"). To a certain degree, this publication continues Jatsemirskij's doctoral thesis, defended a few years ago in the Russian State University for the Humanities (Moscow).

The solution of both of the main problems as proposed in said doctorate (the comparative description of phonetics, vocabulary, and morphology of the Tyrrhenian languages of the 1st millennium BCE, and the demonstration of their genetic relationship) has never been objected to by classical philologists or by specialists in comparative and general linguistics. Therefore, the author decided not only to expand and edit the available material but also to conduct a further comparison on a new level, namely, to use for this comparison also the much older Minoan language (2nd millennium BCE) of Crete. This language has always seemed to the author to be genetically related to the Tyrrhenian languages but to use it for the doctorate would have been logically premature: extensive research in this field has never been undertaken.

Naturally, the parts of the study which deal with the Minoan language are much shorter than those dedicated to the Tyrrhenian languages. However, by combining both types of data the author has tried to put the reader into an integrated linguo-historical context, showing that we are dealing not with a handful of isolates (or, for that matter, with 2-3 closely related dialects of a given isolate), but with a group of languages which can be studied both synchronically and diachronically and which have both a center and a periphery. Besides, such partitions allow us to solve several concrete tasks, – for instance,

reading and understanding a number of inscriptions; defining many borrowings in Greek; explaining various problems in the history of writing, etc.

The lack of a comprehensive comparative study and the problem of the relationship between the Tyrrhenians and the Cretans themselves made it necessary to present in the main text various results, concerning extra-linguistic data: general information about both Tyrrhenians and Cretans; data about known written documents and the appropriate writing systems.

It is hoped that this publication can be used as a short introduction to the state of contemporary Etruscan and Minoan research.

Forthcoming in 2018: Contact ASLIP officers for information (see inside front cover of this issue).



Basque and its Closest Relatives: A New Paradigm: An updated study of the Euskaro-Caucasian (Vasco-Caucasian) hypothesis

By John D. Bengtson

ISBN-13: 978-1544641638; ISBN-10: 154464163X; 515 pp.

This book surveys earlier attempts to demonstrate a genetic relationship between the Basque language and various languages in the Caucasus (“Euskaro-Caucasian”), and analyzes their shortcomings in methods and focus, while acknowledging a residue of valid evidence, assembled over the course of more than a century. The author has added to the earlier evidence: the current book proposes more than 600 Euskaro-Caucasian etymologies. The focus is placed on the comparison of Basque with North Caucasian.

The book also includes a comprehensive comparative/historical system of Euskaro-Caucasian phonology, which analyzes regular correspondences of vowels, including a postulated Euskaro-Caucasian ablaut system, vowel umlaut, unit consonants and consonant clusters, and “irregular” phonetic developments (metathesis, haplology, assimilation, dissimilation, expressive forms, contamination and blending).

There is an overall emphasis on lexicon (etymology) and phonology; morphology occupies a comparatively smaller place, though there are discussions of productive and submerged morphology, pronouns, and verbs.

Finally, the book includes the proposal of a holistic anthropological scenario for the Euskaro-Caucasian hypothesis, in which results from genetic linguistics, archaeology, and human genetics are synthesized, concluding that a population speaking a Euskaro-

Caucasian language arrived on the coast of southwestern Europe ca. 7.5 – 8 millennia ago, bearing a Neolithic culture that included cultivation and processing of grain and pulse crops, husbandry of small and large cattle and swine, and dairying practices. Recent genetic results indicate that the transmission of this language and culture to the present-day Basque Country was primarily by demic diffusion, with some secondary admixture with local hunter-gatherers. The evidence shows that the modern Basque language is not a lineal descendant of the unknown language(s) spoken by European Paleolithic hunter-gatherers, but rather the descendant of a colonial language that arrived in Iberia no more than eight thousand years ago.

The book will be of interest for anthropologists and historical linguists, as well as for archaeologists and geneticists interested in cultural diffusion and the origins and dispersals of ethnic groups.

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